

THE EFFECTS OF A DEVELOPMENTAL GUIDANCE PROGRAM ON THE
SELF-CONCEPT AND LEARNING BEHAVIORS OF PRE-ADOLESCENTS

By

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This project investigated the efficacy of improving the self-concept and the learning behaviors of behaviorally disruptive students through the application of a developmental guidance program. The program utilized for this project was BUILD--Basic Understanding of Individual Learning and Development--which was based on a developmental counseling/teaching model that combined both experiential and instructional modalities.

The following hypotheses were tested:

H₁^O: There will be no significant difference in the self-concept between the experimental and control groups of behaviorally disruptive pre-adolescents after participating in the BUILD program.

H_2^0 : There will be no significant difference in the learning behaviors between the experimental and control groups of behaviorally disruptive pre-adolescents after participating in the BUILD program.

Using a pretest/posttest control group type design, 140 students from five different elementary schools were selected to participate in the study. Twenty-eight students from each school were randomly assigned to one of four groups (two experimental and two control) at their school ($n = 7$ for each group).

The students in the experimental groups met twice a week for eight weeks to receive the BUILD program. The first control group received no treatment.

Three criterion measures provided data to test the hypotheses: Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale; Inferred Self Concept Scale; and Creamer's Behavior Rating Scale, which assessed changes in classroom behaviors. Students completed the Piers-Harris. The students' primary grade teachers completed the other instruments.

An analysis of variance and analysis of covariance revealed a significant difference in two of the three posttest means between the experimental and control groups. Both null hypotheses were rejected and it was concluded that the BUILD program had a positive effect on both the self-concept and the learning behaviors of behaviorally disruptive pre-adolescent elementary school children.

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

Research on classroom problems reveals a significant relationship between low self-concept as a learner and student misbehavior in the classroom (Bogert, 1967; Branch, Damico & Purkey, 1977; Lober, 1966). One's self-concept is a complex, continuously active system of subjective beliefs about one's personal existence that serves to guide the nature and direction of behavior rather than initiate behavior (Purkey, 1970). Consequently a student's self-concept does not cause the student to misbehave in the classroom but does serve as a reference point for all behavior in that environment (Spears & Deese, 1973).

Whether a self-perception is psychologically healthy or unhealthy, educationally productive or counterproductive, students cling to their own self-perceptions and behave accordingly, thereby reinforcing their beliefs (Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976). Unfortunately, children who begin school as poor achievers with negative self-concepts will generally maintain those perceptions throughout their lives (Fitts & Hamner, 1969; Reckless & Dinitz, 1967). This indicates the importance of early identification so that all children have the opportunity to respond to their environment to the best of their abilities (Lefrancois, 1973).

A considerable amount of evidence has been developed related to the significance of feelings of adequacy and the self-concept as a

causal factor related to achievement level in school (McNeil, 1974). The evidence indicates that few factors are more vital to the child's academic success than the evaluation and acceptance of the personal qualities that formulate the self (Tuckman, 1975). Wattenberg and Clifford (1962) suggest that children who come to the schools with negative self-concepts have difficulty in learning, which is often accentuated in the reading experience.

As research becomes more and more specific on the relationship that exists between the child's concept of self and the behaviors conducive to learning, the role of guidance services in the elementary schools becomes more and more defined (Glock, 1972). Elementary school counselors and teachers, through the developmental approach of guidance and counseling, are in a position to improve the self-concepts of children, both directly and indirectly (Lewis, 1968). The purpose of this project is to (1) further investigate the effects that a program designed to enhance the self-concept of children has on their respective learning behaviors and (2) to provide additional information pertinent to the guidance counselors and teachers in the schools.

Need for the Study

It is increasingly recognized by researchers in the field that elementary school children are at a crucial stage in their development (Purkey & Avila, 1971). Children at this age are engaged in the formulation of a style of life and are in the process of establishing self-identities and self-concepts (Dinkmeyer & Caldwell, 1970). Concomitant with this, as children approach the pre-adolescent/puberty

period, they must deal more and more with the issue of adequate social relationships while meeting the challenges which occur in the world of educational achievement (Sommer, 1978).

From a retrospective viewpoint of child educators, there is an increasing amount of evidence that the early elementary grades are crucial for both the educational and personal development of the child (Erickson, 1976). Bloom (1964), in a summary of longitudinal studies of educational achievement, indicates that approximately 50 percent of general achievement at grade 12 has been reached by the end of grade 3. His findings indicate that the first few years of school are extremely significant in the development of children's attitudes toward school and their long-range pattern of achievement.

Behaviors during the years six to ten are highly predictable of adult behaviors. Also, the Fels Research Institute (Dinkmeyer, 1968) reports that the most dramatic and consistent findings of their longitudinal study was that many of the behaviors exhibited by the child during the period of six to ten years of age were moderately good predictors of theoretically related behavior during early adulthood regardless of their appropriateness to healthy development.

Unfortunately, the behaviors and reactions that demonstrate possible dysfunctions in this developmental process do not usually begin to manifest themselves into overt activities until the onset of adolescence (Kauffman & Lewis, 1974). At that point in time, the task becomes one of intervention and remediation instead of the facilitation of the developmental process.

During the middle-childhood years, from school entrance to the beginning of adolescence, the child's social environment expands tremendously. At the same time, the child continues to develop physically, emotionally and mentally, with the different processes and abilities becoming more complex and better differentiated (Mussen, Conger & Kagen, 1969).

As a consequence of the continuing interaction between the developing child and his or her expanding environment, some motives become strengthened and more clearly articulated while others diminish in importance; new standards are set, and the child is confronted with new problems and challenges (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1971). If the child is prepared to confront and eventually master these problems, the self-image becomes clearer and the self-esteem strengthened (Purkey, 1975). In contrast, if the demands are too great, too sudden, too poorly defined, or inconsistent and contradictory to meet even reasonable demands, crippling conflicts and anxieties may develop and lead to a variety of psychological and psychosomatic symptoms that might manifest themselves in disruptive behavior in the classroom (Kauffman, 1977).

There are several alternative ways of viewing disordered or disruptive behavior in the classroom, each of which has definite implications for intervention (Kauffman & Lewis, 1974). The focus of the problem, as approached by this project, is that children's behavior largely results from their affective processes where the mind and the emotions are looked upon as the determinants of overt activity. Consequently, treatment for behavioral dysfunctions takes the approach of stimulating the individual self-concept.

Through the use of BUILD--Basic Understanding of Individual Learning and Development (Creamer, 1982b) as the primary treatment modality--this project investigated the efficacy of decreasing dysfunctional classroom and learning behaviors through the stimulation of the individual child's self-concept. The approach to treatment implied by this model is that mental pathology and, hence, behavior disorder can be counteracted by psychotherapy, counseling or other methods in which verbal interaction and personal relationships play highly significant roles.

Statement of the Problem

It is the purpose of this study to investigate the relationship between the self-concept and learning behaviors of pre-adolescents in a public school setting. More specifically, this study will examine the effects of the BUILD program on both the professed and inferred self-concept of pre-adolescents and their respective relationships to learning and classroom behaviors.

Research Questions

The primary questions for research that arise out of this program are twofold:

1. Is the BUILD program effective in improving the self-concept of pre-adolescents who are exhibiting behaviors that are disruptive to learning?
2. Is the BUILD program effective in improving learning behaviors of pre-adolescents who are exhibiting behaviors that are disruptive to learning?

Definition of Terms

Inferred Self-Concept

The inferred self-concept is the way others believe an individual perceives himself or herself.

Learning Behaviors

Learning behaviors are any behaviors that are conducive to achievement in the classroom.

Pre-adolescents

Pre-adolescents are defined as those children in grades four and five in an elementary school who are between the ages 8 and 11.

Self-Concept

Self-concept is defined as the way people perceive themselves in relation to appearance, backgrounds, abilities, strengths, weaknesses and feelings.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The next section of this study, Chapter II, contains a brief review of the professional literature that is related to the investigation.

The methodology followed in this project is presented in Chapter III. The population, sample, experimental design, hypotheses, treatment, control, criterion measures and plan for data analyses are also presented.

The findings and final conclusions are presented in Chapters IV and V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Five to 10 percent of the children in an average classroom today have emotional or adjustment problems (Ururoglu & Walberg, 1979). The children in this group are in conflict with themselves or others to the extent that they are unable to mobilize enough of their resources to become productive, satisfied learners (Hobbs, 1975a). This conflict often manifests itself into disruptive classroom behaviors that perpetuate the problems that interfere with effective learning. While these children are not so ill as to be considered "severely disturbed," they do need careful consideration and skillful handling to prevent them from becoming personal and academic failures (Kauffman, 1977).

Much of what is exhibited in the classroom by these children has been attributed to negative self-concepts (Brookover, Erickson & Jointer, 1967; Combs & Snygg, 1959; Coopersmith, 1967; Fitts & Hammer, 1969; Purkey, 1970, 1975; Purkey & Avila, 1971; Purkey, Cage & Graves, 1973; etc.). It is the purpose of this study to further investigate the effects of the self-concept on the learning behaviors of these children.

The emerging literature pertinent to this issue is so vast that this chapter will examine only those areas directly related to the project. More specifically, this review will look at the following:

- a. A general description of the pre-adolescent and some of the problems that often present themselves during this stage;
- b. An investigation into the self-concept of children and pre-adolescents and its role in the developmental process;
- c. A look at the behaviors that are deemed necessary for learning to occur;
- d. The effects that teacher perceptions might have on students' self-concept and learning behaviors;
- e. A look at some of the behaviors that are disruptive to classroom learning;
- f. A look at some of the developmental guidance and counseling programs that have been used in the elementary schools; and
- g. A look at the BUILD program, which is the primary treatment modality used in this project.

The Emerging Pre-Adolescent

The emergence and formation of identity are considered by many psychologists and child development specialists to be the primary tasks of pre-adolescence (Blos, 1962; Branch, Damico & Purkey, 1977; Combs, 1958, 1962; Hurlock, 1973; Kagen & Coles, 1971; McCandless, 1970; Mussen et al., 1969; Williams & Stith, 1980; etc.). According to this view, pre-adolescence is a time period for integrating one's features of self-development that generally become crystallized during late adolescence and early adulthood (Giorgi, 1970). McCandless and Evans (1973) characterize this integration as a ". . . reorganization of self --- a reorganization provoked by approaching pubertal changes,

mounting cultural pressures for independence and decisive personal action and the assumption of broader responsibilities to one's self and others" (p. 267).

The hazard of pre-adolescence, according to Erickson (1963), is to identify diffusion or role confusion, as the individual is no longer a child but has not reached that level of identity offered by the adolescent years. At the same time, it is a decisive period for identity formation, which intensifies the confusion associated with the stage.

A review of the literature will point out that there is no real consensus as to the relationship between puberty and adolescence. Criteria as well as definitions of terms, such as latency and pre-adolescence, vary widely. Kohen-Raz (1971) and Schonfeld (1969) use a physiological sequence to designate developmental phases related to puberty, while Muuss (1975) relies on school grade. Hurlock (1973) defines puberty as an overlapping stage covering the end of childhood and the beginning of adolescence. Instead of relying on either observable body changes or chronological age, Blos (1971) uses degree of ego development and changes in sexual drive and choice of sexual object as indicators of five phases of adolescence: latency, pre-adolescence, early adolescence, adolescence proper and late adolescence. None of the developmental theorists recommends using a strict calendar definition of puberty, such as 12 years of age for female and 14 years of age for males (Sommer, 1978).

As it can be ascertained, individual variability makes it rather difficult to designate a time frame for puberty which allows the parameters to pre-adolescence to be necessarily vague and flexible

(Kohen-Raz, 1971). Although the sequence of pubertal events, like other maturational events, is fairly fixed, the timing is individual and variable, thereby overlapping the transitional stage between childhood and adolescence. Thus, chronological age is not a very precise indicator of developmental level.

When researching the nature of the pre-adolescent and the accompanying pubescent changes, however, one thing becomes quite clear. That is, because it occurs at a much later age than the other maturational milestones of walking and talking, puberty is a complex phenomenon at the onset with respect to the interaction between maturational, environmental and individual factors (Sommer, 1978). This phenomenon is the primary source of both biological and mental development for the pre-adolescent, often governing the direction of the individual's future life (Adams, 1969). That is, if an individual has a negative experience in the pre-adolescent stage of development, chances are that aura of negativism will accompany that individual throughout life (Kauffman & Lewis, 1974).

Concomitant with this, there can be dissonance between a person's psychological age based on experience and physiological age based on maturation, with either one outstripping the other (Adams, 1969). As would be expected, this creates an asynchrony within the person that often leads to dysfunctional behavior.

Given the difficulty in defining the pre-adolescent and the lack of consensus about the delimiting marker events and their origins, the questions arise whether there is such a stage in the life span of an individual or whether it is so strongly determined by social views and contests that efforts at definition are useless. Fortunately,

regardless of perspective, there appears to be a growing consensus that the resolution of biological, cognitive and socio-emotional changes during pre- and early adolescence help determine the quality of one's adult life. The years from eight to twelve form a critical time in human development (Kohen-Raz, 1971).

Characteristics of Pre-Adolescent Behavior

Most children will encounter some degree of emotional/psychological turmoil during the pre-adolescent stage (Prawat, 1976). This turmoil will often manifest itself in various acting out behaviors (Kauffman & Vincente, 1972). These behaviors will generally be transient and limited in severity if the pre-adolescent's parents (or the necessary support system) provide good role models, are warm and accepting, and are controlling to a degree that does not thwart individual development (Brubaker, 1976).

In contrast, pre-adolescents who have weak support systems may be expected to encounter psychological or psychosomatic problems which are more severe, more chronic and more refractory to treatment (Kauffman, 1977). Many psychological symptoms involve manifestations of defense mechanisms employed to ward off painful feelings of anxiety (e.g., repression, denial, projection, rationalization, regression, etc.) often resulting in such problems as nightmares and sleep disturbances, school phobias, death phobias, tics, and related disturbances of motility, obsessions and compulsions (often related to the child's increasing strict conscience during this period), hostility toward parents and other adults, and various other psychological symptoms (Katz & Ziegler, 1967).

Concomitant to these regressive and aggressive characteristics, pre-adolescents frequently exhibit an increasingly mature curiosity about themselves and their environment. This curiosity is often evidenced in the different experiments to discover their special abilities, strengths and endurances, in their attempts to project themselves into many imaginary roles, and in their questioning efforts to reconcile the realities of life. There also appears to be efforts to modulate their labile feelings of superiority and inferiority and in their attempts to succeed by rationalizing situations in which they feel inadequate (Stone & Church, 1973). Changes in such behaviors often accompany changes in attitudes and interests and, consequently, help formulate their sense of identity or concept of self as the various behaviors, attitudes and interests are validated or rejected (Hurlock, 1973).

The Pre-Adolescent Years of the Self-Concept

Much of the child's sense of adequacy hinges on the understanding of what his or her role is in life and how well the skills which make up the particular role are mastered (Yamamoto, 1972). Pre-adolescence is a period of no status and no recognition as a particular age group. Many of the conflicts and tensions among the young are the result of society's refusal to grant them rights, privileges and the responsibilities commensurate with those they feel entitled to by virtue of their emerging physiological and intellectual maturity (Roe, 1971).

In the search for identity, the pre-adolescent often tries out various roles and engages in over-identification with movements, best friends and media idols (Williams & Stith, 1980). The clue to the self-serving aspects of these identifications lies with their temporary

nature. Yet, while the external attachment seems faddish and transient, the internal goodness-of-fit is important in the evolution of personality (Sommer, 1978).

Erickson (1963) described pre-adolescence as precipitating a crisis of identity because of the difficulty of mainstreaming a sense of continuity through change. He also pointed out the difficulty of avoiding role confusion and of the possibility of losing the sense of self in the roles played.

Changes in self-appraisal herald a decline in egocentricism (Hansen & Maynard, 1973). Subsequently, self-appraisal as well as the estimation of the views of others become less grandiose and more realistic, while the image of one's ideal self becomes loftier with an increase in the discrepancy between perceived self and ideal self (Purkey, 1970).

Accompanying the growing complexity of self-appraisal is an increased awareness and sensitivity to the thoughts and feelings of others, particularly peers (Combs & Snygg, 1959). There is an increasing recognition of the differences between one's own feelings and those of others (Duval & Wicklund, 1972). As these differences become more and more defined, the pre-adolescent's self-concept becomes more and more defined. The next section of this review will examine some of the literature pertinent to the emerging self-concept.

Self-Concept

For over one hundred years man has theorized on the psychological construct identified as "self-concept." Many of the theories on the development of self-concept can be traced to William James who identified "ego" as the individual's material and social aspects (James, 1890). One need only to scan the literature on the subject of "personality" or

"psychological theory" to become aware of the attention which had been devoted to theorizing on the development of self-concept and the importance which has been attached to it. Gordon Allport (1955, 1961, 1962), Sigmund Freud (1924, 1936), Kurt Lewin (1935), William Purkey (1970, 1975), Carl Rogers (1951, 1967) and George Mead (1934) are just a few of the well known theorists who have added to our understanding of self-concept.

Although the theories have varied on how one's self-concept is acquired and developed, most authors agree that this phenomenon is how and what one perceives himself or herself to be, and how one sees and feels about himself or herself in terms of abilities, personality, physical appearance, heritage and emotional make-up (Purkey, 1970).

Combs (1962) tied self-concept to behavior when he gave us the interpretation that self-concept is both an object and a process composed of not only the way the individuals perceive what they are, but the cause of their behavior as well. The self-concept is one of the most important factors affecting the way in which an individual will behave. It can mean the difference between a person being psychologically crippled and maladjusted or a fully functioning person who is well adjusted (Combs & Snygg, 1963).

If this is true, to help children develop a good self-concept, self-esteem is as vital to their respective development and emotional and mental strength as food food is to their physical strength. An organized program designed to enhance the sense of identity and self-esteem of the child may serve as a preventative program by building up the children's inner strengths and making them less vulnerable to maladjusted behavior,

and by helping them to become what Kelley (1962) refers to as the "fully functioning self."

The literature is filled with evidence of the concern of psychologists, educators, counselors, social workers, criminologists and other professionals on the importance of an individual's self-concept and the part it plays in how that individual behaves. A poor self-concept (low self-esteem) is reported in studies of the alcoholic (Catanzaro, 1967), the drug addict (Chein, 1969), the juvenile delinquent (Reckless & Dinitz, 1967) and in relation to suicidal behavior (Kaplan & Pokorny, 1976).

Low self-esteem is considered one of the important characteristics that appears quite common in the majority of alcoholics. According to current research (Kaplan & Pokorny, 1976), alcoholics often feel that as children they were never really loved as they felt they should have been, so, consequently they are probably not worth loving. When they drink, however, these feelings dissipate, and they feel very good about themselves. Unfortunately, when the alcoholic induced-euphorism begins to wane, the old feelings of self-doubt come back, and there is a great temptation to have "just one more drink" to feel good about themselves again (Catanzaro, 1967).

In his major study of heroin addiction, Isidor Chein (1969) found that several personality traits were associated with addiction. Included in these personality traits are low self-concept and little ability for self direction. Many rehabilitation programs are aimed specifically at the formation of a positive identity within the individual (Girdano & Girdano, 1976). Consequently, there is considerable speculation given to how much suffering might be saved if a program which focuses on the

formation of a positive identity within the individual were available to individuals in their young years before they become addicted to drugs or alcohol.

Reckless and Dinitz (1967) stressed the importance of a good self-concept in explaining the fact that only some boys in a high delinquency area are delinquent. They theorized that a "good" or "insulated" self-concept enables the conforming boy to withstand that which leads others of his peers into delinquency, whereas a "bad" or "vulnerable" self-concept lets him succumb.

One longitudinal survey studied the relationship between self-concept and suicidal behavior. The study, which covered a period from March, 1971, to April, 1973, surveyed 3,148 junior high school students to determine if a relationship existed between the adoption of suicidal responses (ideation, threats, attempts) and antecedent negative self-concepts. The findings indicated that suicidal behavior is a response (whether or not subsequently continued) to experiences of negative self-concepts in the most recent past and that the adoption of suicidal responses tends to be preceded by negative self-concepts (Kaplan & Pokorny, 1976).

Self-Concept and Behavior

If the relationship between poor self-concept and some maladjusted behaviors such as those described in the previous section are completely set aside, there is still an overwhelming body of knowledge which would support adding a program which focused on the student's self to the academic curriculum of the schools. Combs (1962) linked the importance of self-concept to the field of education in his declaration that a person's success or failure educationally has more to do with what

individuals believe about themselves than any other single factor. His contentions are supported by an impressive body of contemporary research which strongly points to the existence of a real and significant relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement (Combs, 1962). These findings hold true through all grade levels and for both sexes (Combs, Avila & Purkey, 1978).

Fink (1962) studied two groups of ninth graders paired for achievement and underachievement. The self-concept of each student was judged adequate or inadequate by three separate psychological measures: the Draw a Person test, California Psychological Inventory and the Gough Adjective Checklist. He found those students identified as having an adequate self-concept to be represented significantly more in the achievement group than those students identified as having an inadequate self-concept.

One extensive longitudinal research project involving students in the seventh through twelfth grades reported self-concept of ability to be significantly related to school achievement of the students even when intelligence was factored out (Brookover, Erickson & Joiner, 1967). When Wattenberg and Clifford (1962) studied kindergarten youngsters they found a child's self-concept was an even better predictor of reading success than I.Q. Irwin (1967) studied self reports of freshman college students and reported a significant relationship between the reported self-concept of those students and academic achievement.

Not only does the influence of self-concept on academic achievement of students hold strong for both males and females, regardless of age group, but it also has been shown to hold strong across races as well. Caplin (1966) found that Black children who professed more positive

self-concepts tended to have significantly higher academic achievements. Glasser (1969) makes perhaps the strongest argument of all for the importance of the relationship between self-concept and achievement and the need for an organized program designed to help the student develop feelings of self-worth. He sees the whole of society dichotomized between those who identify with success and those who identify with failure, not between Black and White or rich and poor.

Efforts to Affect Change in the Self-Concept

Although the literature is inundated with research regarding the relationship and importance of self-concept to numerous and varied human behaviors, there are relatively few documented studies reported which attempt to induce changes in the self-concept. Because of competing theories, fads, terminologies and gaps in knowledge about people, some professional psychologists have strongly urged their fellow psychologists to "stay in the lab" (Yamamoto, 1972).

Yamamoto (1972, p. 122) argues that in the light of all that is known about the importance of children developing a sense of their own self-worth, society cannot afford to spend another hundred years theorizing about the self-concept instead of developing definite programs designed for the specific purpose of helping the children know, understand and appreciate themselves and their abilities to deal with life effectively. To withhold knowledge of techniques and insights which have been found to be effective because all of the data are not in, is seen as a grave error.

Most of the efforts expended toward helping children develop positive views of themselves have been done through indirect "catch-as-can" methods which aim toward educating the teachers and parents

of the importance of providing a self-concept enhancing climate, a climate in which the children cannot only work and play but "grow" in reaching their full potential.

Glasser (1969) feels that teachers feel threatened by anyone who suggests basic changes in methods of teaching or in the school curriculum. Although some dissatisfaction with the present method exists, there seems to be a resignation to the status quo and they are antagonistic toward anyone who advocates a change. Glasser (1969) points out that administrators have the same attitude to a lesser degree, and a vicious cycle exists with the teachers blaming the administration and parents, the administration blaming the teachers and parents, and the parents blaming the teachers and administration. As a result, a new generation of children grow up feeling threatened, defensive and full of self-doubt, perhaps even to become parents, teachers and administrators themselves. Unfortunately, since they failed to gain a sense of their own personal self-worth, like the generation before them, the members of this newest control group are unable to help their own students and children gain an understanding and appreciation of their self respecting worth.

In reviewing the relatively few studies which have attempted to induce changes in the self, one finds mixed results. Collins (1972) attempted to alter self-concepts of thirty female adolescents with behavior problems through educational material covering personal grooming, posture and poise, dating, etc. Results indicated that self-concepts of female adolescents with certain combinations of social/emotional problems were significantly improved in therapy situations by exposure to and participation in self-improvement courses.

Taylor (1978) sought to test the effects of a self-awareness program on the self-concept and motivation toward school. The experimental treatment groups were exposed to twenty self-awareness sessions, while the placebo treatment groups participated in twenty free reading periods. There was no significant difference found between the pretest and posttest scores for either group.

Rose (1978) studied the effects of self-instruction on the self-concept of a group of middle school students with learning problems. The students met for one classroom period a week over four consecutive weeks. They discussed and practiced substituting positive self-referent statements in imagined school situations that typically generated negative self-assessments. The results of this study supported the general assumptions that positive self-concept can be enhanced by the implementation of systematic self-instructional procedures. This latter study lends support to the contention stated earlier that even though we do not know as much as we would like to about the individual and the development of the self, there is a great body of knowledge of techniques and insights which can be used effectively in implementing a program which focuses on helping children (in this instance young adolescents) develop understandings and appreciations of themselves and their capabilities.

The next section of this review will examine some of the behaviors and perceptions that are conducive to learning while focusing on the development of the whole learner. It should become apparent as one progresses through the literature that the self-concept and the learning behaviors of the individual child grow to be more and more reliant upon

one another as the child develops. Unfortunately, the two can be linked to both positive and negative growth.

Learning Behaviors

According to Snygg and Combs (1949), learning is a natural and normal process for children that is an important dimension of normal growth and development. As a behavior, learning can be directly linked to the way a person's self-image has been formed.

Human behavior may be viewed from the standpoint of forces "inside" and "outside" the individual that impel the particular individual's thoughts, feelings and actions (Lindgren, 1975). The motivational or "inside" forces include needs, wants, drives, feelings and emotions, interests and attitudes, guilt and anxiety. The environmental or "outside" forces include not only the attractive, disturbing or reassuring aspects of the situation in which we find ourselves, but also the attitudes and expectations of others and our rewards, costs and dangers.

It is ordinarily very difficult to determine where an internal force leaves off and an external one begins, and the differences between the two may not be precise (Bernard, 1972). For the purpose of this study, the focus will be on the organismic forces that scientific research has linked with motivation (Kauffman, 1974).

There are many approaches to analyzing and classifying the internal forces that result in the individual displaying the phenomenon termed "behavior." Experimental psychologists tend to prefer systems that explain behavior in terms of what are called drives--forces that are largely biological, such as hunger, thirst and sex (Torrance, 1967).

Although much of animal behavior and some aspects of human behavior can be understood in terms of primary, physical drives, other aspects cannot be. Human beings, unlike other animals, have a keen interest in learning new and extremely complex and abstract forms of behavior (Lindgren, 1975). Attempts to explain the motives that underlie such behavior in biological terms run into great difficulty (Liska, 1975). In any event, trying to explain learning on a purely biological basis has limited value and offers little help to the practitioner trying to define learning.

. A theory of motivation put forth by Robert W. White (1971) suggests that apart from satisfying the elementary biological needs, most human behavior is concerned with attempts to gain some measure of competence. This seems to be particularly true of such behavior as exploring, investigating, communicating, thinking, attending, perceiving and manipulating the environment. White termed this striving toward competence "effectance," an activity that results in a feeling of efficacy or effectiveness. He also felt that the need for competence or effectiveness operates relatively independent of biological drives and enables individuals to discover and invent ways of adapting themselves to their immensely complex and continually changing environment. It is this need for effectiveness that results in most of the learning that is accomplished both inside and outside of the classroom.

Similar conclusions were also drawn by Carl Rogers (1951, 1967), Combs and Snygg (1959) and Purkey (1970) from their research in psychotherapy and human learning. These researchers maintained that the basic human motive is a need for "adequacy," which they described as a

"great driving, striving force in each of us by which we are continually seeking to make ourselves ever more adequate to cope with life" (Snygg & Combs, 1949).

The need to be adequate is expressed through two forms of behavior: maintenance and enhancement (Lindgren, 1975). From birth to death, the need to maintain ourselves as living, functioning organisms is our most important task, but not the only task. Each of us is a continually changing organism living in a continually changing world, and each must learn to grow if survival is the issue (Rogers, 1951).

This need for adequacy also manifests itself in the classroom by dictating the nature of the learning behaviors of the students. Davidson and Greenberg (1967) investigated successful learners among lower-class children and the correlates of school achievement within this group. On three different and distinct aspects of the self (Personal competence, Academic competence and Social competence), the high achievers rated themselves significantly higher than did the low achievers. In a similar study, Williams and Cole (1958) explored the relationship between the reported self-concepts and school adjustment of 80 sixth-grade students, and found significant positive correlation between their self-concepts and such variables as reading and mathematical achievement.

There are many other studies that support these findings (Purkey, 1975), and they all generally conclude that students who possess a positive self-image tend to exhibit positive learning behaviors in the classroom. A composite portrait of successful students would seem to show that they have a relatively high opinion of themselves and are optimistic about their future performance (Ringness, 1961). They have

confidence in their general ability (Taylor, 1964) and in their ability as students (Brookover et al., 1967). They need fewer favorable evaluations from others (Dittes, 1959), and they feel that they work hard, are liked by other students and are generally polite and honest (Davidson & Greenberg, 1967). Judging by their statements, successful students can generally be characterized as having positive self-concepts and tending to excel in feelings of worth as individuals.

It should be noted at this time that the ways that significant others evaluate the student directly affect the students' conception of his or her academic ability. This, in turn, established limits on his or her success in school (Purkey, 1970) and, hence, influences the learning behaviors of the student. The next section of this review will examine teacher perceptions of the student and what effect that has on learning.

Teacher Perceptions of Student Behavior

One of the most comprehensive studies of the self-concept of ability and school success was that of Brookover and his associates (1967). They conducted a six-year study of the relation between the self-concept of academic ability and school achievement among students in one school class while in the seventh through the twelfth grades. A major purpose of this study was to determine whether improved self-concept results from the expectations and evaluations held by significant others as perceived by the students. As they concluded: "The hypothesis that students' perceptions of the evaluations of their academic ability by others (teachers, parents and friends) are associated with self-concepts of academic ability was confirmed" (1967, p. 110). The almost unavoidable conclusion is that teachers' attitudes and opinions regarding their

students have a significant influence on their students' success in school. In other words, when teachers believe that their students can achieve, the students appear to be more successful; when teachers believe that their students cannot achieve, then it influences their performance negatively. This self-fulfilling prophecy has been illuminated by the research of Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968a, 1968b).

Although no one actually knows what happens when learning occurs, there is a growing body of research data that points to teachers with their attentiveness, expectancies, encouragements, attitudes and evaluations as the primary force in influencing students' perceptions of themselves as learners. These teachers' characteristics reflected in their behavior, increase or decrease the probability of student learning (Braun, 1976; Brophy & Good, 1970; Doyle, Hancock & Kifer, 1972; Mendels & Flanders, 1973; Palardy, 1969; Purkey, 1970; Rist, 1970; and others).

The next section of this review will examine some of the behaviors that are considered disruptive to the learning process and are often a result of negative perceptions by the teachers.

Problem Behaviors in the Classroom

Problem behavior is a matter of concern for teachers not merely because some types may be disruptive, but also because all types, whether aggressive or passive, are likely to interfere with students' learning (Williams & Kamala, 1973). In its broadest sense, "problem behavior" is a term that applies to any kind of behavior that creates difficulties (interferes with the effective functioning of the students or the classroom group) or reveals the presence of difficulties (indicates that the student or the group is not functioning effectively). Hence, such diverse symptoms as "chronic defiance of teachers and other persons in

authority," "extreme shyness," "excessive daydreaming," "truancy" and "chronic unhappiness or depression" may all be considered varieties of problem or disruptive behavior (Lindgren, 1975, p. 90).

Understanding problem behavior today means that teachers should become sensitive to the interaction between the forces and the factors in the students' environment and performance in the classroom (Weiner, 1972). Although the students who display severe problems constitute only a small percentage of the total school population, they exert a disturbing force far beyond their numbers (Lindgren, 1980).

The student with the "conduct problem" is more likely to come to the attention of the teacher because of aggressive, disturbing behavior (Weiner & Kukla, 1970). Nevertheless, students whose problems are more in the nature of "neurotic" or "personality" maladjustments, as well as those who are emotionally and socially immature, may also be having difficulties with learning (Weiner, 1970).

All students are bothered with problems of emotional and social adjustment to some degree, although the problems are not usually severe or numerous enough to produce the kind of gross disturbances that underlie or accompany chronic problem behavior. The so-called "problem child" is one who has more than the usual amount of problems and is more severely troubled by them than most children. Adolescents tend to have more problems than younger children, some of them involving illegal acts. Involvement with and commitment to the peer group is often counterproductive to school-related activities (Lindgren, 1980).

Teachers and school authorities who must deal with students' problem behavior are sometimes tempted to treat it with drastic methods, but such an approach does not usually secure the desired results.

Treatment of problem behavior has a better chance to succeed if it is based on an understanding of what lies behind the disturbance. Understanding problem behavior is not an easy task, however, and it is sometimes necessary to call on psychological or psychiatric experts for special help (Wolman, 1972).

One of the reasons why problem behavior is so difficult to understand is that it serves as an escape from or a defense against anxiety (Kauffman, 1977). There are many different kinds of maneuvers that both children and adults use unconsciously as ways of coping with anxiety or tension. These "defense mechanisms" have this in common: They are learned patterns of behavior directed at reducing or eliminating anxiety rather than solving problems that are the basic cause of anxiety (Gallagher & Harris, 1964).

Problem behavior is more common among boys than girls (Wolman, 1970). Boys mature less rapidly in social and linguistic skills and have poorer impulse control; hence, they do not get along at school as well as girls do, although there is apparently little overall difference in their success, as measured by achievement tests. Boys' problems are often aggravated by the inconsistent ways in which they are often treated by parents and other adults. On the one hand their nonconforming, aggressive and irresponsible behavior is encouraged, or at least condoned (i.e., fighting with peers), but on the other hand it is punished for being socially unacceptable. As Wolman points out, boys are thus rewarded and punished for behaving in ways that the American culture considers "masculine." Such treatment increases their feelings of confusion and causes more problems in school as well as in society.

Problem behavior is to a large degree caused or aggravated when students are discouraged by failures in school tasks or other areas (Branden, 1970). Distractions are also a problem, but can be controlled if students are coached on how to ignore them. Students who are working for specific rewards will also do better if they can mentally "transform" the rewards, rather than concentrate on the reward's specific attractions. There are a number of factors and forces in the school environment that foster good mental health and help to reduce or eliminate problem behavior (Shertzer & Stone, 1976). For example, students have opportunities in school to learn how to work and play together and to express themselves in ways that are both satisfying and socially acceptable. Most students learn these skills to some degree; the problem student is one who is unwilling, or more likely, unable to learn them. Schools also provide a climate of stability and predictability—qualities that help foster emotional security. Today's teacher is expected to know more about the psychological aspects of problem behavior than was true in former years. Although an increasing number of specialists are available to help teachers with special problems, there is also recognition that the classroom teacher must play a key role in whatever programs are formulated and carried on (Fox, Luszki & Schmuck, 1966).

The next section of this review will look at the developmental guidance approach in dealing with these students.

Developmental Counseling

Developmental counseling is concerned with the development and facilitation of human effectiveness (Dinkmeyer & Caldwell, 1970). As an integral part of the educational process, it is concerned with the developmental needs and tasks of all children and focuses on helping

individuals know, understand and accept the way they are. Developmental counseling, which can be contrasted with adjustment or crisis counseling, is not always problem-oriented in terms of assuming that the child has some difficult problem or dysfunction. On the contrary, the goals are the development of self-understanding, awareness of one's potentialities and methods of utilizing one's capacity (Dinkmeyer, 1968).

This type of counseling, then, becomes personalized learning, not individualized teaching. Children learn to not only understand themselves but to become ultimately responsible for their choices and actions (Dinkmeyer & Caldwell, 1970). Consequently, the rationale for emphasizing developmental guidance in the elementary school relates to the nature of the child and the setting or learning environment (Blocher, 1968).

Theoretically, the goals of American education stress the importance of assisting children to develop according to their own unique design. According to Dinkmeyer and Caldwell(1970), educational programs are developmental when they start with the children where they are and help them to fulfill themselves while becoming contributing members of society. Concomitant with this, developmental guidance is the organized effort of a school system to personalize and humanize the educational process for all children.

As a result of this movement toward developmental guidance, there have been numerous programs developed to facilitate the ease of incorporating developmental processes into the schools. During the last decade, several affective education programs have been introduced to assist children in learning more about themselves and others (Myrick & Erney, 1978). Some of the more visible ones were systematic and organized, and

they emphasized a curriculum approach that provided sequential planned activities that focused upon areas of self-development. These published materials and others are excellent resources that can be used in guidance programs at all levels in the elementary school. Following are some examples of these programs.

Developing Understanding of Self and Others (DUSO) is a guidance program that was developed by Don Dinkmeyer. DUSO Kit D-1 (1970) is designed for use in the primary grades while DUSO Kit D-2 (1973) is used with students at the intermediate grade levels. A variety of activities, posters, stories, songs, cassette tape recordings, puppets and readings help children learn more about themselves and others.

The Human Development Program (HCP)(Palomares, 1974) is often referred to by its popular name of "Magic Circle." It is an organized "show and tell" experience where students sit in a circle and discuss given topics. Discussion tasks are sequentially arranged and related to social and emotional development, self-understanding, self-confidence and human relations. Each session usually lasts between 10 and 15 minutes.

During Magic Circle, students take turns going around the circle and responding briefly to such tasks as: Think of a time you did something but wished you hadn't; Tell about a time when you felt proud; Tell something you wanted to do but didn't. In most instances, students share their thoughts briefly and little attempt is made to help them elaborate upon their responses.

Toward Affective Development (TAD) was developed by Henery Dupont, Sue Gardner and David Brody (1974) for use with children in grades three through six. Again, the approach is a circular one, with 191 classroom

lessons built around 21 guidance units. Like DUSO, TAD kits have useful materials, including cassette tapes, discussion pictures, games and supplemental activities.

The list could go on and on, but what is important is the availability of such developmental guidance programs to the elementary school systems. They provide additional tools to the practitioner for that ever increasing task of educating the young.

Of the developmental approaches currently in use, the BUILD program (Creamer, 1982b) will be utilized for this project. The next section will give a brief overview of this program to acquaint the reader with its structure.

The BUILD Program

The BUILD (Basic Understanding of Individual Learning and Development) program is an eight-week, 16-session developmental guidance seminar designed to enhance the self-concept of children (see Appendix A). During the time that it was being field-tested and researched, it was entitled ME--My Esteem (Creamer, 1979, 1980, 1981b). While it is still in a state of transition, its basic focus on the mental health of the child has not diminished.

The exercises that are included in the program deal primarily with the following:

1. A look at the self-concept--how people develop a sense of their own worth;
2. The various ways people cope with feelings of self-doubt, inadequacy, guilt, etc.;

3. Personal development exercises using the "feelings class" approach;
4. Decision-making--utilizing the inquiry method to explore an issue or problem;
5. A psycho-educational approach to the approaching adolescent years; and,
6. A special, individualized project that each student will undertake utilizing his or her own special skills, talents and abilities.

The BUILD program has had significantly positive effects on the self-concept of various groups of children, including emotionally handicapped adolescents (Creamer, 1982b), learning disabled pre-adolescents (Creamer, 1981b) and mainstreamed pre-adolescent boys (Creamer, 1980). In each of these studies, the BUILD program was the primary treatment modality.

Rationale for the BUILD Program

The literature is filled with evidence of the concern of psychologists, educators, counselors, social workers, criminologists, etc., of the importance of an individual's self-concept and the part it plays in how that individual behaves (Combs & Snygg, 1959; Rogers, 1951; Snygg & Combs, 1949). There is an impressive body of evidence to support the contention that how children grow up feeling about themselves (their sense of self-worth) is the largest determiner of what the individual child will become (Hamachek, 1978; Purkey, 1970; Sears & Sherman, 1964). Reviews of the self-concept literature (Purkey, 1970; Wylie, 1974) and educational intervention strategies (Smiley, 1976) document the fact that academic achievement constitutes one area of behavior that has been widely assumed to be global, or general, self-concept. Inadequacies in

global self-concept have been repeatedly implicated as a causal factor in the academic achievement problems of disruptive inner-city children (Erickson, 1963; Witty, 1967), as a result, inner-city children have often served as targets for intervention strategies aimed at augmenting academic achievement through enhancement of global self-concept.

Some psychologists feel there is still not enough known about affecting changes in the self-concept to warrant coming "out of the lab" (Yamamoto, 1972). The majority of research involving the self-concept is finding correlations, e.g., self-concept as it relates to academic achievement, suicide, drug addiction, etc. The argument has been made that there is a great deal of knowledge available about how the self becomes known to an adult and how feelings of self-worth and competency can be fostered in the child. In light of this, it seems inappropriate to wait until "all the evidence is in" before developing and implementing programs that have as their primary objective the helping of individuals in their understandings and appreciations of themselves and the recognition and development of their own unique capabilities to deal with life. Consequently, this project, which was designed to investigate the relationship between the self-concept and classroom learning behaviors of pre-adolescents, utilizes the knowledge of techniques and insights which have been found to help the individuals gain a sense of their own self-worth.

Developing a feeling of self-worth requires

1. An understanding of "Who Am I?" "What are my strengths, weaknesses, values, hopes, goals, etc.,"

2. A look into how the self is formed, how persons develop a sense of self-worth, how persons cope with feelings of self-doubt and inadequacy;
3. That persons have confidence in their own abilities to deal with life, its problems and its adversities (Purkey, 1970).

These areas of development are highly facilitated by having the students experience feelings classes (Wittmer & Myrick, 1980). The concept of feelings classes was first introduced by Faust (1968) and forms a basic structure for the BUILD project. The major objectives of a feelings class are:

1. To help students become aware that feelings exist. This involves a sensitizing experience for students that facilitates personal growth;
2. To help students become aware that all people possess, at all times, all kinds of feelings. That they have feelings in common with other students. This awareness of others' similar feelings tends to reduce guilt feelings that often interfere with learning and/or cause anxiety.
3. To help students become more aware that feelings are neither bad nor ugly. Students learn that all people inhibit feelings, but they need not be denied or ignored, which could lead to defensiveness and ineffective behavior patterns.
4. To help students learn socially effective ways of expressing feelings. Human beings have a wide range of feelings, some unacceptable to society. These feelings can be channeled into socially acceptable behaviors.

It is the intent of this project to use the BUILD program to enhance the self-concept of pre-adolescents who are exhibiting behaviors that are counterproductive to classroom learning and examine the effects of the self-concept on those same learning behaviors. If the research remains constant, this project should add additional support for the use of developmental guidance groups in the elementary schools.

CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this project is to examine the effects of a program designed to enhance the self-concept and learning behaviors of behaviorally disruptive pre-adolescent students. The BUILD program (Creamer, 1982b) will be utilized as the primary treatment modality.

The following sections will be presented in this chapter: the population, sample, experimental design, hypotheses, treatment, control, criterion measures, the plan for data analyses and the experimental procedures.

Population

The population for this study was selected from the Seminole County School System in Seminole County, Florida. Seminole County School System, which is located in the Central Florida area, reported a population of 36,495 students during the first four months of the 1981-1982 school year. Of those 36,495 students, 82.2 percent were White students, 14.0 percent were Black students, 2.5 percent were Hispanic students, 0.9 percent were Asian or Pacific Islander students and 0.4 percent were American Indian or Alaskan native students.

The targeted population for this study included both the fourth and fifth grade populations of the Seminole County Schools for a combined total of 5,627 students. Of these 5,627 students, 82.26 percent were White students, 14.07 percent were Black students, 2.86 percent were Hispanic students, 0.59 percent were Asian or Pacific Island students

Table 1
Demography of Racial Composition

Classification	Population		Sample	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
White	30,020	82.4	4629	82.26
Black	5,116	14.0	792	14.07
Hispanic	897	2.5	161	2.86
Asian or Pacific Islander	327	0.9	33	0.59
American Indian or Alaskan Native	135	0.4	12	0.22
Total	36,495	100.0	5627	100.00

and 0.2 percent were American Indian or Alaskan Native students (see Table 1 for individual class composition). Also, 2,958 of the 5,627 students were female, for 52.57 percent of the total and 2,669 were male for 47.43 percent of the total.

Sample

The participants in this project were 140 fourth and fifth grade students from five different elementary schools (N=28) located in Seminole County, Florida. The students were selected for the project by their respective classroom teachers and their school counselors based upon pre-designated criteria (see Appendix B) which outlines some of the behaviors that are counterproductive to learning. This was done to allow some degree of consistency to the selection process and to reduce the chance of error.

Each participant, at the time of selection, was actively attending a regular classroom program and not involved in any special placement or classification.

Experimental Design

The experimental design utilized in this study was a randomized control-group, pretest/posttest design as outlined by Van Dalen (1966).

There were two experimental groups and two control groups at each of the five schools, with 7 students in each of the groups. The students were assigned to one of the four groups in each school by utilizing a table of random numbers.

The basic format of the two experimental groups in each of the five schools remained constant, with only the adult facilitator withing each group being different. The adult facilitators in each school were trained group leaders who followed the guidelines of the BUILD program (see Appendix A).

The students in the two control groups at each school received either a placebo treatment or no treatment, depending upon the group to which they were assigned. The experimental design that was followed is presented in Table 2.

Hypotheses

H_1^0 : There will be no significant difference in the self-concept between the experimental and control groups of behaviorally disruptive pre-adolescents after participating in the BUILD program.

H_2^0 : There will be no significant differences in the learning behaviors between the experimental and control groups of behaviorally disruptive pre-adolescents after participating in the BUILD program.

Treatment

The experimental treatment in the project was a 16-session developmental guidance/teaching seminar entitled BUILD--Basic Understanding of Individual Learning and Development (see Appendix A). BUILD was designed to facilitate the growth of the self-concept of elementary school students in the public schools through both developmental guidance and information delivery. As a packaged guidance program, it was found to be effective

Table 2
Experimental Design

Schools	Groups	Experimental Procedures
A	Exp. 1 (n=7)	T1a T2a T3aX T1b T2b T3b
	Exp. 2 (n=7)	T1a T2a T3aX T1b T2b T3b
	Control (n=7)	T1a T2a T3a T1b T2b T3b
	Control (n=7)	T1a T2a T3a T1b T2b T3b
B	Exp. 1 (n=7)	T1a T2a T3aX T1b T2b T3b
	Exp. 2 (n=7)	T1a T2a T3aX T1b T2b T3b
	Control (n=7)	T1a T2a T3a T1b T2b T3b
	Control (n=7)	T1a T2a T3a T1b T2b T3b
C	Exp. 1 (n=7)	T1a T2a T3aX T1b T2b T3b
	Exp. 2 (n=7)	T1a T2a T3aX T1b T2b T3b
	Control (n=7)	T1a T2a T3a T1b T2b T3b
	Control (n=7)	T1a T2a T3a T1b T2b T3b
D	Exp. 1 (n=7)	T1a T2a T3aX T1b T2b T3b
	Exp. 2 (n=7)	T1a T2a T3aX T1b T2b T3b
	Control (n=7)	T1a T2a T3a T1b T2b T3b
	Control (n=7)	T1a T2a T3a T1b T2b T3b
E	Exp. 1 (n=7)	T1a T2a T3aX T1b T2b T3b
	Exp. 2 (n=7)	T1a T2a T3aX T1b T2b T3b
	Control (n=7)	T1a T2a T3a T1b T2b T3b
	Control (n=7)	T1a T2a T3a T1b T2b T3b

Symbols: T1a = Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale, pretest
 T1b = Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale, posttest
 T2a = Inferred Concept Scale, pretest
 T2b = Inferred Concept Scale, posttest
 T3a = Creamer's Learning Behavior Rating Scale, pretest
 T3b = Creamer's Learning Behavior Rating Scale, posttest

in enhancing the self-concept of children and pre-adolescents from a variety of backgrounds (Creamer, 1979, 1980, 1981a, 1981b, 1982b). In its original format, which was entitled ME - My Esteem (Creamer, 1979), it was found to be particularly effective in enhancing the self-concept of pre-adolescent males.

The format of the experimental condition is such that the 25-30 minute sessions were conducted twice a week for eight weeks. The exercises in the individual sessions consisted of both group and individual

activities and dealt primarily with the following through both experimental and teaching modalities:

1. A look at the self-concept (that is, how people develop a sense of self-worth);
2. The various ways people cope with feelings of inadequacy, pain, rejection, loss, etc., as well as feelings of joy, success, winning, and so on;
3. Individual and group introspection;
4. Decision-making skills (utilizing the inquiry method to explore an issue or problem);
5. A close look at the approaching teen years with some of the emotional, personality and physical changes, as well as the cultural and societal pressures placed upon the adolescent; and
6. A special individualized project that each participant will undertake that will utilize his or her own special skills, talents and abilities (see Appendix A).

In each of the five schools, the sample was divided into four groups, with two groups ($n=7$) being the control groups and the other two groups (each with an n of 7) being the experimental groups. Both the experimental groups in each room were lead by trained adult facilitators, with one group being lead by the school guidance counselor and the other being lead by a counselor education intern from the University of Central Florida.

Control

Like the experimental groups, there were two control groups in each of the five schools. One group followed the same routine as the experimental groups except that it received a neutral treatment. That is,

while the first control group in each school was lead by a counselor education intern for the University of Central Florida and the students left the classroom the same as the students from the experimental groups, the facilitators were instructed to keep the sessions neutral and non-directive.

The second control group in each of the schools received no treatment and did not leave the classroom

Criterion Measures

Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale

The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale, hereafter referred to as the PH (Piers, 1963), was utilized as the primary pre/posttest administered to the participating students. The pretest was administered approximately one week prior to the beginning of the experimental program and the posttest was completed approximately one week after the final session of the experimental program.

The PH, entitled "The Way I Feel About Myself," is a quickly completed (15-20 minutes) self-report instrument designed for children over a wide range of ages. Administered in group form, it requires approximately a third grade reading knowledge, although both the instruments and the individual items were read aloud (as suggested by the authors) to the participating groups in this study. The PH was designed primarily for research on the development of children's self attitudes and correlates of these attitudes.

The items of the PH are written as simple declarative statements (e.g., "I am a happy person") and at least half were negative in content (e.g., "I behave badly at home") in order to reduce the effects of

acquiescence. However, negative terms such as "don't" were avoided as much as possible in order to avoid or reduce any confusion of a double negative.

The PH was distributed in the form of a booklet, and the participants were to respond to each question/statement by marking the appropriate yes/no response with a pencil. Upon completion, the items were scored by the researcher in the direction of high (adequate) self-concept according to the accompanying score key.

Reliability coefficients for the PH range from .78 to .93 (Wylie, 1975). A correlation coefficient of .68 was found when the scores for the PH were compared with the scores on the Lipsitt's Children's Self Concept Scale (Mayer, 1965). Teacher and peer ratings corresponded with the student's self ratings with a coefficient from nonsignificant to .49 (Piers, 1965). Stability was measured by test and retest methods and the coefficient was found to be .77 (Wing, 1966). Concomitant with that, studies by Yonker, Blixt and Dinero (1974) and Smith and Rogers (1978) confirmed a general alpha of about .90.

Inferred Self Concept Scale

The Inferred Self Concept Scale (McDaniel, 1973) is a thirty item Likert scale instrument that was completed by each participant's primary teacher at the beginning and at the conclusion of the program. The instrument is designed to help teachers describe their perceptions of an individual student's self-concept in terms of the indicated terms.

The instrument has demonstrated a consistent split-half reliability of between .89 and .91. Temporal stability estimates up to five months generally confirm the coefficients of over .75 reported in the Manual.

Shorter periods, which are utilized more frequently for reliability studies, show test-retest correlations of .87 or over.

Creamer's Learning Behavior Rating Scale

The Creamer's Learning Behavior Rating Scale (Creamer, 1981a), hereafter referred to as the CLERS, is a thirty item Likert-like scale (see Appendix C). The instrument was self-administered by each participant's primary teacher at the beginning and at the end of the experimental program. The instrument is designed to help teachers describe their perception of each individual student's learning behavior in the classroom setting.

The CLERS is based primarily on the research conducted by Swift and Spivak (1969) in which they found that children's overt behavior in the classroom that proved to be detrimental to learning could be categorized into seven basic behavioral factors. Children who could not maintain a successful and positive interaction with the learning environment generally exhibited the following:

1. engaged in behavior that required teacher intervention and control;
2. were overdependent on the teacher;
3. had difficulty concentrating and paying attention;
4. entered the classroom with fewer ideas and materials than the other children;
5. became upset under the pressure of academic achievement more often than other children;
6. often did "sloppy" work or responded impulsively; and
7. frequently became involved in teasing, annoying or interfering with the work of other children.

The instrument has demonstrated consistent split-half reliability of between .87 and .93, and test-retest correlations of .86 and above. A correlation coefficient of .74 was found when the scores of the CLBRS were compared with the Burks' Behavior Ratings Scales (Creamer, 1981b).

Concomitant with this, the items selected for the instruments were judged by a panel of educational specialists to be properly descriptive of a specific observable aspect of behavior and easily understood in clear, concise and functional terms. In addition, each item demonstrated a statistical propensity (through factor analysis studies) to be grouped with other items into a category that could later be assigned a behavioral meaning and a label (Creamer, 1981b).

Analysis

Once all of the data were collected, an analysis of variance procedure (ANOVA) was utilized to check for the following:

1. Whether or not school location (n=5) resulted in any significant differences (where the level of significance = .05) on the mean scores of the three pretests.
2. Whether or not group membership (n= 4) resulted in any significant differences (where the level of significance = .05) on the mean scores of the three pretests.
3. Whether or not there were any significant differences (where the level of significance = .05) in the group means of the various initial measures when looking at all possible variations and combinations of the variables.

The analysis of variance procedure was used here because the research question was whether or not the means of the groups differed from one another (among groups variance) to a greater degree than the

scores in the groups differed from their own group means (within group variance). The F ratio was built from the two different sources of variance as follows:

$$F = \frac{\text{among-groups variance}}{\text{within groups variance}}$$

(in this procedure, when $F \leq 1.00$, there is no significant difference between these two estimates. As the groups differ increasingly from each other and the within-group variance remains constant or decreases, the F value increases. Also, small F values have a high probability of occurring because of sampling.)

Once this procedure was completed, then the next step of the statistical analysis was conducted. An analysis of covariance procedure (ANCOVA) was utilized to test the significance of differences among/ between the means of the final experimental data by taking into account the correlations between the dependent or criterion variables (the different posttests) and the covariates (the different pretests) and by adjusting the initial mean differences in the different groups. That is, the analysis of covariance was used to analyze the final measures of significance by adjusting for pretest differences between the groups.

Since the analysis of covariance works with the sums of cross products and covariances as well as the sums of squares, the net outcome of the procedure is an analysis of covariance table that tests the significance of the differences of the Y means of the experimental groups after adjustment of the Y sums of the squares. The adjustment, in effect, removed from the Y sums of squares that part due to the relation between X and Y (when X = the pretests or control variables and Y = the posttests or criterion variables). What emerged for a final analysis of covariance

was the adjusted total, between-groups and within-groups sums of squares. Variances (mean squares) and the F-ratio were calculated from these adjusted measures, with the alpha level being significant at the .05 level. That is, the analysis of covariance F-test, which used Y sums of squares purged of the influence of X, would be significant at the .05 level.

This procedure helped investigate the following:

1. Whether or not group membership ($n=4$) resulted in any significant differences (where the level of significance = .05) on the mean scores of the posttests pertaining to self-concept.
2. Whether or not group membership ($n=4$) resulted in any significant differences (where the level of significance = .05) on the mean scores of the posttests pertaining to learning behaviors.

Experimental Procedure

The principals and guidance counselors of the 24 elementary schools in Seminole County, Florida, were contacted during early Fall, 1981, by an on-site visit by the researcher. After the presentation of the proposed content and objectives of the program, permission to conduct the project at each school was requested. Once permission was obtained from the respective schools, five of the schools were randomly selected to participate in the program. When this was done, the school counselors and teachers at each of the five schools began selecting students to participate in the program using the basic criteria as outlined in Appendix B, with their primary objective being to select 32 students (28 for the groups and 4 alternates) to participate in the project. As the students were selected, their records were checked to make sure that all of the appropriate permission forms were on file.

After the 32 participants in each of the five schools were identified, they were assigned to one of the four groups in each school through the utilization of a table for random numbers. Following this, individual meetings were held with the teachers of each student where the researcher and the school guidance counselor discussed the time out of class and the completion of the criterion measures (the Inferred Self Concept Scale and the Creamer's Learning Behavior Rating Scale).

During approximately the fourth week of the research project, the initial meeting with the selected subjects was held at each of the five schools. The purpose of these meetings was to explain the project to all of the participating students and to answer any questions that were presented.

During the course of these meetings, the student participants received a talk from their school guidance counselors about the value of finding out more about themselves and the importance of completely honest responses when developing communication skills. The school guidance counselors suggested that this talk needed to serve as an introduction to the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale that they were to administer to the participating students. During this talk, it was stressed by the school guidance counselors that this was not a test, that there were no right or wrong answers, that the results would not affect their school grades and that all responses would be kept strictly confidential.

When the PH was distributed, everyone was checked to make sure that they had a pencil and that they knew how to fill out the identifying data. The instructions for the 80-item scale were then read aloud by the school guidance counselor, stressing the fact that either yes or no responses should be circled for each item and that no

omissions and no double circles should be used even if some of the items were hard to decide. After that, each item on the scale was read aloud clearly twice without haste, but not so slowly that second thoughts or distractions could occur. Approximately 20 minutes was required to complete the PH (this procedure was repeated at each of the five participating schools).

When the PH was completed, the members of the two experimental groups and the non-directive control group in each of the five schools were given a schedule of the sessions and were released to return to their regular school schedule. The members of the other control groups at each of the five schools were also given schedules, but their assignments consisted only of keeping a written or audio-recorded journal to be handed in to their school guidance counselor once a week during the eight weeks of the experimental treatment. Feedback on these journals was provided on a regular basis by counselor education interns from the University of Central Florida, but was limited to written responses only.

After the sixteen sessions (treatment) had been presented to the experimental groups in each of the five schools by the trained facilitators, the testing procedures were repeated using the same basic format as the initial testing.

Once all the data had been collected from the five schools by the researcher, a rigorous investigation into the results was conducted to ascertain whether or not the major hypotheses had been accepted or rejected. Based on these findings, a comprehensive report was assembled and presented to interested parties.

CHAPTER IV RESULTS

It is the purpose of this study to investigate the effects that a developmental guidance program has on the self-concept and learning behaviors of pre-adolescents. Research had linked the importance of self-concept to the field of education in that the perception of self appears indicative to success and failure academically. With the need to know the efficacy of developmental counseling at the pinnacle of concern, the concept of encouraging human effectiveness at the elementary school level seems crucial. Hence, the format of this program seems most appropriate.

Utilizing the BUILD program (Creamer, 1982b) as the primary treatment modality, 140 elementary school students participated in the eight week, sixteen session program. After this program was completed, the data from the pretests were analyzed using a series of statistical procedures to ascertain whether or not any change occurred.

The next sections will look at the results of the statistical analyses on the different variables. More specifically, the report will look at the following:

1. Self-concept as a focus of study in the developmental processes of adolescents;
 - a. A look at the instrumentation used to measure this variable;
 - b. An examination of the statistical analyses (analysis of variance) used to treat the pretest data on this variable;

- c. An examination of the statistical analysis (analysis of covariance) used to treat this variable;
 - d. A determination of whether the null hypotheses is accepted or rejected.
2. Learning behaviors as a crucial element to academic success of pre-adolescents;
- a. A look at the instrumentation used to measure this variable;
 - b. An examination of the statistical analyses (analysis of variance) used to treat the pretest data on this variable;
 - c. An examination of the statistical analyses (analysis of covariance) used to treat this variable;
 - d. A determination of whether the null hypotheses is accepted or rejected.

Self-Concept

A child's self-concept is a complex, continuously active system of subjective beliefs about personal existence that serves to guide the nature and direction of behavior rather than initiate behavior (Purkey, 1971). For the purpose of this project, self-concept was measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale and the Inferred Self Concept Scale.

The four groups (two control and two experimental) at each of the five schools were administered these two instruments on a pretest/posttest basis. The two pretests were subjected to an initial analysis of variance to ascertain whether or not there were any significant differences (alpha level = .05) between and among the means of the entire 20 groups (four groups x five schools).

The analysis of variance procedure was used here because the basic premise of the research question was whether or not the means of the groups differed from one another (among groups variance) to a greater degree than the scores in the groups differed from their own group means (within group variance).

After the pretest variables were analyzed for initial differences, then the posttest data were analyzed for differences by using the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) procedure, thereby adjusting for the influences of the pretests. Again, the alpha level would be significant at the .05 level.

The results of these analyses were used to ascertain the acceptance or rejection of the null hypotheses.

H_1^0 : There will be no significant change in the self-concept of behaviorally disruptive pre-adolescents after participating in the BUILD program.

Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale

The analysis of the pretest data revealed that there was no significant difference either between group means or among group means. As can be evidenced in Table 3a, the groups were quite similar, which produced an F ratio of 0.023 (see Table 3b).

Table 3a
Piers-Harris Pretest Summary A

Group	n	Mean	SD	SE	95% confidence interval
Ex 1	35	51.06	5.01	0.847	49.336 to 52.779
Ex 2	35	51.31	6.78	1.130	49.012 to 53.599
Co 1	35	51.44	5.57	0.955	49.499 to 53.383
Co 2	35	51.31	7.19	1.215	48.846 to 53.783

Table 3b
Piers-Harris Pretest Summary B

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob
Between groups	3	2.686	0.895	0.023	0.9952
Within groups	136	5239.449	38.525		
Total	139	5242.136			

After the initial scores of the PH had been investigated, then the next step in the process began. That is, the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) procedure was applied to the posttest data from the PH. What emerged for a final analysis of covariance table (see Table 4a) were the adjusted total, between-groups and within-groups sums of squares. Variances (mean squares) and the F ratio were calculated from these adjusted measures.

What resulted from this procedure was a very significant F ratio of 10.969. This means that on the basis of the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale, the null hypothesis was rejected because after the exposure to the experimental treatment (BUILD), the two experimental groups exhibited a statistically significant difference from the two control groups ($F = 10.969$).

Table 4a
Piers-Harris Posttest Summary A

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob
Between groups	3	802.756	267.585	10.969	0.000
Within groups	136	3317.666	14.395		
Total	139	4120.421			

Table 4b
Piers-Harris Posttest Summary B

Group	n	Mean	SD	SE	95% confidence interval
Ex 1	35	55.114	4.484	0.758	53.574 to 56.655
Ex 2	35	55.806	5.154	0.859	54.062 to 57.549
Co 1	35	51.177	5.000	0.858	49.432 to 52.921
Co 2	35	50.314	5.086	0.860	48.567 to 52.061

Inferred Self Concept Scale

Like the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale, the Inferred Self Concept Scale exhibited no statistically significant differences between the various groups. This was true for both the between-group means and the among-group means (see Table 5a).

However, when the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) procedures were applied to the posttest data from the ISCS, an F ratio of 1.490 was calculated (see Table 6). When the F values from the pretests were visually compared with the F values of the posttests, there appears to be a difference. When consulting a reference source for F values, however, a minimum F value of 2.68 was reported as being needed to achieve statistical significance. Hence, on the basis of the Inferred Self Concept Scale scores, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 5a
Inferred Self Concept Pretest Summary A

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob
Between groups	3	181.429	60.477	0.477	0.7197
Within groups	136	18,393.506	135.246		
Total	139	18,574.936			

Table 5b
Inferred Self Concept Pretest Summary B

Group	n	Mean	SD	SE	95% confidence interval
Ex 1	35	61.486	13.147	2.222	56.969 to 66.002
Ex 2	35	62.250	10.109	1.685	58.830 to 65.670
Co 1	35	64.529	10.880	1.867	60.733 to 68.326
Co 2	35	63.314	12.167	2.057	59.135 to 67.494

Learning Behavior

Learning behaviors are those behaviors that are conducive to achievement in the classroom. These behaviors are affected by many different variables, but have been linked very strongly to the concept of self by much of the current research. For the purpose of this project, learning behavior was measured by the Creamer's Learning Behavior Rating Scale.

Data from each of the four groups (two control and two experimental) at each of the five schools were collected by utilizing the CLBRS on a pretest/posttest basis. The pretest was subjected to an initial analysis of variance to ascertain whether or not there were any significant differences (alpha level = .05) between and among the means of the entire 20 groups (four groups x five schools).

Table 6
Inferred Self Concept Posttest Summary

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob
Between groups	3	126.072	42.021	0.263	0.852
Within groups	136	21,736.921	159.830		
Total	139	21,862.993			

The analysis of variance procedure was used here because the basic premise of the research question was whether or not the means of the groups differed from one another (among group variance) to a greater degree than the scores in the groups differed from their own group means (within group variance).

After the pretest data from the CLBRS were analyzed for initial differences, the posttest data from the CLBRS were analyzed for differences using the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) procedure, thereby adjusting for the influences of the pretest. Again, the alpha level was considered significant at the .05 level.

The results of these analyses were used to ascertain the acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis.

H_2^0 : There will be no significant change in the learning behaviors of behaviorally disruptive pre-adolescents after participating in the BUILD program.

Creamer's Learning Behavior Rating Scale

The analysis of the pretest data revealed that there were no significant differences either between group means or among group means. An F value of 0.263 was calculated, which was well below the F value of 2.68 that needed to be obtained for the level of significance to be statistically significant (see Table 7).

Table 7
CLBRS Pretest Summary Table

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ration	F Prob
Between groups	3	126.072	42.021	0.263	0.852
Within groups	136	21,736 921	159.830		
Total	139	21,862.993			

After the CLBRS pretest had been analyzed for differences, the next step in the data analysis began. That is, the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) procedure was applied to the posttest data from the CLBRS for the final step in the process. What emerged for a final analysis of covariance table were the adjusted total, between groups and within groups sums of squares (see Table 8). Variances (mean squares) and the F ratio were calculated from these adjusted measures.

What resulted from this procedure was an F ratio of 10.814, which was considerably greater than the 2.68 value of F required to signify statistical significance. This means that on the basis of the Creamer's Learning Behavior Rating Scale, the null hypothesis was rejected because after the exposure to the experimental treatment (BUILD), the two experimental groups exhibited a statistically significant difference from the two control groups.

Table 8
CLBRS Posttest Summary

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob
Between groups	3	809.344	267.120	10.814	0.000
Within groups	136	3321.219	25.000		
Total	139	4130.562			

CHAPTER V SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The remainder of this report will examine the data that were generated by this project and provide a discussion of some of the implications of the data on elementary school guidance programs. More specifically, this section will present the following:

1. A summary of the entire project;
2. Discussions and conclusions and implications of the results of the BUILD program on both the self-concepts and learning behaviors of pre-adolescents in an elementary school setting and any limitation; and,
3. The implications of the findings and possible recommendations for further research and development.

Summary

This project investigated the efficacy of improving the self-concept and learning behaviors of behaviorally disruptive students through the application of a developmental guidance program. The program utilized for this project was BUILD--Basic Understanding of Individual Learning and Development--which was based on a developmental counseling/teaching model that combined both experimental and instructional modalities.

Based upon the employment of BUILD as the primary intervention strategy, the following two hypotheses were generated:

H_1^0 : There will be no significant difference in the self-concept between the experimental and control groups of behaviorally disruptive pre-adolescents after participating in the BUILD program.

H_2^0 : There will be no significant differences in the learning behaviors between the experimental and control groups of behaviorally disruptive pre-adolescents after participating in the BUILD program.

The design of the project was such that 140 elementary school students from five different schools were selected by their schools to participate in the program. The approximately 28 students from each of the five schools were randomly assigned (using a table for random numbers) to one of the four groups at their school so that $n = 7$ for each group. The final categorization of the groups was such that there were two experimental groups and two control groups at each school.

Experimental group one at each school participated in the BUILD program and was led by the school guidance counselor. Experimental group two at each school participated in the BUILD program and was led by a counselor education graduate intern. All of the leaders of the experimental groups were trained group facilitators who were familiar with the BUILD program.

Control group one at each school was also led by a counselor education graduate intern who was a trained group facilitator. These control groups participated in an unstructured nondirective series of sessions. Control group two did not participate in any formalized groups.

The pretest/posttest, control group type design relied on three major instruments to test the hypotheses. These were the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale and the Inferred Self Concept Scale to test the change in self-concept and the Creamer's Learning Behavior Rating Scale, which was used to ascertain the change in behaviors defined as conducive to learning. The students completed the Piers-Harris, while the students' primary teachers completed the other two.

Once the program was completed and all the data had been collected, statistical analysis revealed that there was a significant difference in two of the three posttest means between the experimental and control groups. The nature of this difference was such that both the null hypotheses were rejected and it was concluded that the BUILD program had a positive effect on both the self-concept and the learning behaviors of behaviorally disruptive pre-adolescents in an elementary school setting.

Discussions and Conclusions

The purpose of this project was to lend support to the concept of establishing developmental guidance programs in the elementary schools. The results of the study were significant enough to warrant another look at the process of developmental guidance and its relationship to human potential. While the teacher perceptions of the students' self-concept proved inconclusive at this point, the strong gains demonstrated by the students' own perceptions of their self-concept and the accompanying improvement in behavior as perceived by the teachers adds incentive for more rigorous research in this area.

After completing the eight-week BUILD program, the participants almost unilaterally indicated an improved self-concept on the Piers-Harris. This was contrasted with their nonparticipating peers' scores on the Piers-Harris following the natural regression toward the mean. In other words, while the students who did not participate in the BUILD program followed the natural pattern of a test/retest procedure, the students who did participate in the BUILD program exhibited statistically significant improvements in their overall self-concept. With the reliability and validity of the instrument firmly established, these results strongly support the effectiveness of BUILD in enhancing the self-concept

of pre-adolescents who have been exhibiting behaviors that are counter-productive to learning.

Concomitant with these findings, these changes in self-concept were also evidenced in personal testimony by some of the participants' classroom teachers. The overall consensus of these teachers was that there had been some positive changes in the self-concept of most of the students who had participated in the BUILD program, with the most noticeable improvements in the shy and/or withdrawn students. The teachers seem to feel that these particular students benefitted the most from the program in that it helped them build their communication skills and to test these new skills in a highly supportive environment before returning to the classroom situation. These improved communication skills helped the students to verbalize their own particular needs and situations to the teachers.

While many of the teachers expressed concerns over the long-range benefits of the BUILD program, it was generally concluded that BUILD was effective as both an intervention modality and a remedial modality in improving the self-concept of emotionally and behaviorally dysfunctional students. The concerns over the long-range effects of BUILD were primarily linked to the worry that the students would not be able to replicate the support network that had been established for them in the group oriented program. It was concluded that this was a valid point and could become a reality unless the teachers and the guidance counselors worked together to create an environment that was more conducive to growth and acceptance.

Like the self-concept, the learning behaviors of the pre-adolescent elementary school students were also positively influenced by the

participation in the BUILD program. After completing the eight week BUILD program, the participants' teachers consistently indicated on the CLBRS that the students exhibited improved learning behaviors.

Like the self-concept, the learning behaviors of the pre-adolescent elementary school student were also positively influenced by participation in BUILD. After completing the eight week program, the participants' teachers consistently indicated on the CLBRS that the students exhibited improved learning behaviors. This was contrasted by the lack of change on the CLBRS by the nonparticipating peer groups. Consequently, on the basis of teacher perceptions of classroom behavior, BUILD was effective in improving the learning behaviors of the pre-adolescent students who participated in the program.

This change in behavior was further evidenced by personal testimony of some of the students' teachers. There was a general consensus by the teachers that BUILD had a positive effect on the attitudes toward school often demonstrated by the behaviorally disruptive students. The change in attitude seemed to facilitate the learning environment and tended to reinforce itself as the students experienced success. Consequently, while attitudes toward school improved, the behaviors that were conducive to learning exhibited a likewise improvement.

As has been evidenced, it can be concluded by the results of this study that BUILD was effective in both improving the self-concept of students and enhancing their respective learning behaviors. Whether or not there was a causal relationship present between the variables of self-concept and learning behaviors remains to be seen. However, the differences between the experimental and control groups tend to allude to the need for more rigorous research in this area.

While there are many intervening variables that come into consideration when conducting a research project such as this one, there were very few limitations placed on the project as a whole. This was primarily due to the scientific methodology used to design and assemble the project and the full cooperation of the professionals involved in the mechanics of the project. This enhanced the effectiveness of the research and established a degree of quality in the data that were collected.

The chief limitation present in this study was the time frame that was utilized. The original format of the BUILD program called for sixteen weeks. This allowed for a longer time allotment for the participants to either incorporate or reject the new information and awarenesses according to their own developmental needs. This extended time frame also increased the validity of any changes due to the program and improved the reliability of the criterion measures.

Implications and Recommendations

It can be concluded from this project that the BUILD program, albeit in a condensed time frame, was effective in improving the self-concept and the learning behaviors of pre-adolescents in an elementary school setting who were exhibiting behaviors that were counter-productive to an academic environment. While the condensed time frame of BUILD was originally viewed as a limitation, it now lends support to the flexibility of BUILD and its utilization in a variety of different settings.

With the success of BUILD there evolves a number of questions recommended for further research.

1. Could the student's self-concept be effectively used as a predictor of potential problems in learning behaviors?

2. Is BUILD effective with nondysfunctional populations as well as dysfunctional populations?
3. Is BUILD more effective with a particular sex?
4. Does racial identification have an impact on the effectiveness of BUILD?
5. Are there certain variables present in the self-concept that are more conducive to positive learning behaviors?
6. Are there certain characteristics of the self-concept that are counterproductive to positive learning behaviors?
7. What are the long-term effects of the BUILD program on students' self-concept and learning behaviors?
8. Can the BUILD program be implemented in a peer facilitation program?

While these questions are by no means inclusive of all the areas for further inquiry, they do provide some guidelines for future research and investigation. The more precise the information becomes, the more refined BUILD becomes, thus allowing for its incorporation into a variety of different settings where developmental guidance programs are deemed most appropriate.

Finally, the purposes of elementary school guidance are closely aligned with the personalization of education and the facilitation of the instructional processes. This focus on both the child and the educational environment is a crucial key to the future success of the academic community. Consequently, it is imperative that teachers, counselors and administrators become aware of the significance of human development concepts in understanding the nature of the guidance process in the elementary

school. The efficacy of BUILD provides a specific modality for communicating the feasibility of such processes and lends itself to further development.

APPENDIX A
BUILD
BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF
INDIVIDUAL LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT

SESSION 1 ORIENTATION

Objectives

1. Help the students feel at ease in the new situation and with new friends;
2. Help each member gain an overview of what the course is about, what the group will be doing and why the course can be important to them; and
3. Help each member understand the ground rules which apply when the group is meeting.

Special materials needed

Before starting, a Polaroid camera, film, construction paper, pencils, glue and a large sheet of poster board are required.

Activity A

Once the session has started, the group leader will carefully read Helpful Hints for Creating a Warm and Accepting Classroom Climate (see Appendix I) and a short discussion/reaction will follow. The leader will give the group an overview of what the course is about (e.g., the name of the class is BUILD - Basic Understandings of Individual Learning and Development - a class about us - the way we feel about ourselves, what we like about ourselves, what we don't like about ourselves, how the way we feel about ourselves can affect our behavior, etc.). The leader will lightly touch on the meanings of the terms "self-concept" - the way I see myself and what I feel and think of myself as a person - and "self-esteem" - do I see myself as having more positive things I like about

myself (plus features) than things I dislike about myself (minus features). The leader will stress that the course will be like a search - a search to find out as much about ourselves as possible. At this point, some of the activities which the group will be doing, such as problem solving, trust walk and looking at the coming teen years, will be mentioned. The leader will assure the group that they will not be graded for the course and that the course is offered so that students can get to know themselves better. It will also be mentioned that the knowledge gained from this course can be beneficial in helping them in other areas of their lives, such as schoolwork, friendships, home and family situations and future events, such as the upcoming teen years. The members of the group will be given an opportunity to ask questions, to express feelings or to voice any concerns about the content or focus of the course.

Activity B

The next portion of this class period will be devoted to helping the members get to know one another. One way to do this is to make a bulletin board consisting of each member's picture with their name and something each person would like the class to know about them. If a bulletin board is not available, the pictures can be mounted on poster board. The leader will take a Polaroid picture of each member and have one member take the leader's picture. Each child will mount his or her picture on a piece of construction paper and write their name and their special piece of information that they want to share with the class on the bottom.

Activity C

When everyone has finished this activity, the members will arrange their chairs in a circle. The leader will explain that each time the group meets in the circle, there will be certain ground rules that are to be followed:

1. Each person will have a turn to share his or her thoughts and feelings with the other members of the circle if desired;
2. Everyone will listen without interruption, put-downs, jokes or preaching;
3. Outside the group, members will not discuss anything another member said except with who said it;
4. After everyone has shared, a few minutes will be spent in reviewing what each member said. IT IS IMPORTANT TO HAVE EVERYONE FEEL THAT HE OR SHE HAS BEEN LISTENED TO.

The leader will start the group by asking if anyone would like to tell the group their name and the one thing they would like the group to know about themselves. The group leader will also take a turn. After each person is given an opportunity to share, the leader will lead the group in reviewing what each person said.

Source

Rules for Circle Group from Geraldine Ball's Human Development Program - Level V. Human Development Training Institute, LaMesa, CA, 1974, p.8.

SESSION 2 BUILDING TRUST

Objectives

1. To build trust between group members;
2. To help the student realize the qualities we look for in a person whom we trust and how that makes us feel.

Activity

If group members are to share their thoughts and feelings with another, they must trust each other. By participating in the trust walk, each member will be given an opportunity to see how they feel about trusting a member of the group. The activity will also stimulate thinking about what makes one person trust and feel comfortable with another person. What factors build trust? How does this relate to sharing thoughts and feelings?

The leader explains the trust walk to the group. The exercise is best done outside, but it can be done indoors. Each student will pair off with another student they select. For five to ten minutes, one student will wear a blindfold over their eyes while the other student leads them carefully about the playground or room. It is the guides' job to make sure their partners are safe at all times and they do not bump into anything or fall. The guides will also give their partners an opportunity to touch different textures, such as rough concrete, carpet, grass, water, wood, etc.

Both partners are to be silent during the entire period. Using a prearranged signal (such as a bell) each pair will switch roles. After five to ten minutes, the group members will return to the classroom and meet in their circle form.

The leader will facilitate discussion with such topics as: When I was leading I felt . . .; When I was being lead I felt . . .; Feelings of being safe with another person mean . . .; I was able to trust my partner because . . .; The person I feel safe with had the following qualities. . . .

The group will review what each person shared. The leader will list the qualities of a person who can be trusted.

Source

Trust Walk from L. Fearn and R. McCabe, Magic Circle - Supplementary Idea Guide, The Human Development Training Institute, San Diego, 1975, p. 63, and J. Canfield and H. Wells, 100 Ways to Enhance Self Concept in the Classroom, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1976, p. 71.

SESSION 3
WHO AM I?

Objectives

An increased awareness by each member of:

1. What am I learning about myself?
2. How am I feeling today?
3. Who am I?

Special Materials Needed

Clear plastic report folders, notebook paper, various colored construction paper, "Who Am I?" work sheets.

Activity

It is important that the students be aware of what they are learning about themselves during each session. This session will introduce the students to the idea of keeping personal journals and recording what they learn about themselves during each classroom session. To increase self-exploration, a work sheet entitled "Who Am I?" will be inserted in each journal.

Having the children get in touch with how they are feeling today will be carried out by a discussion of the color the children choose for their journal covers.

The leader will distribute the report covers for the journals (notebook paper and work sheets will have already been distributed). The purpose of the journal will be explained by the group leader and it will be suggested that after each session the members record in the journals the

date and what they learned about themselves in the form of a statement such as: "Today I learned that I . . ." The leader will go over the work sheet with the group and explain that they are to complete the work sheet as much as possible now, but as they learn new things about themselves during the sessions, they can add to their work sheets.

Various colored construction paper will be distributed to the group. Each member will select the color which best tells how he feels that day. The student will place the colored paper within the journal so that the color will show through the clear plastic cover. The leader will remind the group that the construction paper will always be available and that they can change colors during the first and last of each session. This behavior will be modeled by the leaders changing the color of their journals as their feelings change.

The group will meet together in the circle. The leader will start the group by asking if someone like to share the reason they chose a certain color by stating: "I chose the color _____ today because I am feeling _____." The leader will encourage the group members to get in touch with how their bodies feel when they are feeling angry, sad, alone, confused, happy, excited, etc. The leader can introduce feelings which were not brought out during the sharing time by asking if someone could pick out a color to describe a certain feeling such as worthless, shy, embarrassed, happy, angry, wanting attention, etc., and tell how it feels and what situations might cause one to feel that way. The leader and the group will review how each person that shared was feeling. It is important to include in the review any students who were reluctant to share their feelings by asking them to restate how they felt someone else was feeling.

SESSION 4
I BELIEVE IN ME

Objectives

1. To introduce the student to the meaning of self-concept and how one's self-concept can be influenced by others.
2. To enhance students' own ability to believe in themselves regardless of negative encounters.

Activity

The IALAC story was chosen as the activity for carrying out this objective. This activity will begin in the circle group. The leader will write IALAC (pronounced I - ah - lack) in bold print on a sheet of paper and then attach it to his or her clothing. At this point, the leader will explain that everyone carries an invisible IALAC sign around with them and at the beginning of life it is whole and large. It reads and means, "I am lovable and capable." This is our self-concept - how we feel about ourselves. When it is whole and complete the person has what we call high self-esteem - a good self-concept. The person is aware of their capabilities and strengths. They feel good about themselves. They recognize there are things they do not do well, but they also recognize that everyone has different strengths and weaknesses. They recognize that no one can do everything well so they don't expect themselves to be perfect. The size of our IALAC sign is often affected by how others interact with us and HOW WE ALLOW THEM TO AFFECT OUR FEELINGS TOWARD OURSELVES. If someone tears us down, puts us down, hits us, rejects us; a piece of our IALAC sign may be destroyed. (Illustrate by

tearing a corner off the sign.) The leaders proceed to tell the following story with feeling and illustrating the negative effects of put downs, etc. by tearing a piece off their IALAC sign. (rip!)

A sixth grade boy named John is still lying in bed five minutes after his alarm went off. His mother calls, "Get out of that bed, John! I told you last night to get to bed or you would be too lazy to get up this morning." (rip!) John gets to the breakfast table and hears "Your hair is a mess, can't you comb that rat's nest?" (rip!) He eats his breakfast and goes to brush his teeth. He glances in the mirror and remembers how hurt he felt when one of his classmates remarked that his nose was funny looking. (rip!) He gets to school O.K. and is walking down the hall. As he glances down at his watch he bumps into another student hurrying to class. "Fink! Why don't you look where you are going?" (rip!) First period goes O.K., but they had a math game in second period and John was the first to sit down. (rip!) P.E. goes O.K. for a while until he misses the ball and one of his teammates calls out "Stupid! Stupid! Stupid!" (rip!) After the game he starts to the showers when he hears the coach call out, "Hey you! Get a move on!" (rip!)

After lunch he has a history class and the teacher is handing back last week's quiz. John glances down at the grade - 55 and the unhappy face the teacher drew on his paper/ (A big rip!) Well, it's 2:00 and he had been called stupid, lazy, fink, hey you; he is beginning to feel as unhappy as the face the teacher drew on his history exam. He feels stupid, lazy and a fink. This is the way he is feeling - this is his self-concept right now. At this very moment, John has a low self-esteem. He is left with just one-third of his IALAC tag. He had even less as

the day goes on, after he is told by his sister that her friend said he was the skinniest boy in the sixth grade. (rip!)

The next day John's IALAC is a lot smaller and if the negative experiences continue John's feelings of "I am a likable and capable person" will be replaced by "I am an unlovable and stupid person."

The leader starts off the group by asking if someone would tell how their IALAC tag gets torn. If the discussion does not naturally move toward discussing ways of helping people enlarge their tags rather than making them smaller, the leader will bring out the fact that John's IALAC sign can be made larger. Can someone think of ways to make John's sign grow larger? After everyone has had a chance to have a turn, the leader will bring out the most important part of this activity. The leader will point out that John, himself, has the power to determine how much, if any, of his IALAC tag is torn. John can start believing in himself. He can learn to appreciate his strengths - his capabilities. Perhaps his nose is a little funny looking, but he also realizes and appreciates the fact that he has very nice eyes and a nice smile. Maybe he did make a 55 in history, but he is strong in science. Most of all, John does not let John down during these negative encounters. John is still John's best friend. John can say, "No matter what you say or do to me, I am still a worthwhile person."

The leaders will pin a new IALAC sign on their chest and read the story again and instead of (rip!), the sign stays intact and the group repeats in unison, "No matter what you say or do to me, I am still a worthwhile person."

The leader asks each student to imagine the face of someone from the past who put them down (it could be a parent, teacher or friend).

As the students and leader close their eyes and imagine the face of the person they selected, they all repeat the phrase, "No matter what you say or do to me, I am still a worthwhile person."

Source

Adapted from J.Canfield and H. Wells, 100 Ways to Enhance Self Concept in the Classroom, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1976, p. 69 and p. 91.

SESSION 5
SELF-EXPLORATION

Objectives

1. Self-exploration - what things represent the way I feel;
2. Help group members gain understanding of how their self-concepts are affected by their own estimate of their abilities;
3. Give group members an opportunity to share with and trust each other.

Special Materials Needed

One paper bag for each person, two magazines per person, construction paper, yarn, tape, markers and glue.

Activity

The paper bag activity is chosen as a means to carry out the above objectives and help the students learn that individuals have certain things that they do not want others to see for fear of what other people will think or feel about them.

Each person in the group will be given a large paper bag. Pictures from magazines, glue, construction paper, etc. will be made available to each member.

The leaders will explain that on the outside of the paper bag everyone will attach pictures from the magazines, draw pictures and write words which represent the "self" that they want others to see. These are things people know about them. The leaders may give examples by beginning to construct their own bags. On the inside of the bag the group members

will place objects, pictures, words, etc. that represent things no one usually knows about them or that they don't want people to know about them.

The group will meet in the circle to share as much or as little of their bag as they would like. After everyone has had a turn sharing their bag, the leaders and groups members will review what each person said about his or her bag. The leader will facilitate the discussion by asking:

1. Did anyone notice something special on someone's bag that they had never noticed about that person?
2. How well do you feel the person matches the bag?
3. What qualities, particularly those you like about a person, did a member fail to include on their bag?
4. Why are there some things we don't want others to see?
5. What would happen if we found out that a person we admired had the same traits we had hidden? Would this change the way we feel about that trait (or thing we did not like about ourselves)?

Source

Paper Bag from E. Amatea's The Yellow Brick Road. Career Education Center, College of Education, Florida State University, 1975, p.70.

SESSION 6
BEING SPECIAL

Objectives

1. Help the students understand that it is very important to like one's self.
2. Help them find and acknowledge to others something attractive about their own face.

Special Materials Needed

Large mirror (8" by 10").

Activity A

The way children grow up feeling about their physical attractiveness has a lasting effect on their self-concept. Many people go through life overlooking their good features only to concentrate on an imperfect nose, mouth, chin, etc. These activities were chosen to help children understand the importance of their own self-judgement and give them practice in looking for and concentrating on their attractive features and being able to freely admit, "I like my . . ."

The group is broken into smaller groups (3 - 4 members per group). The leader will pass out a copy of the following poem to each person.

Just go to the mirror and look at yourself
and see what the person has to say;
For it isn't your father, mother or wife,
Whose judgement upon you must pass.
The fellow whose verdict counts most in your life
is the one staring back from the glass.

Author Unknown

(This can be placed in their journals if they like.)

Each group will spend 15 minutes discussing and interpreting the meaning of the poem. The leader will move around to visit each table to help with any word meanings but being careful not to take over the discussion. Each group will share its interpretation of the poem with the total group. The leader will guard against any negative criticism of any group's interpretation, but is free to give their own interpretation during open group discussion.

Activity B

The group will meet in their circle for the next activity. When everyone is seated, the leader will take out the mirror and give it to the person on their right. They will begin by explaining that most people are very critical of themselves (especially their physical appearance and that today's activity will give everyone a chance to focus on what they like about the way they look. The leader will tell the person with the mirror that they are to look in the mirror and see something they like about their face. The first person should look in the mirror, notice what they like and say, "I like my . . ." That person will then pass the mirror to the next person who will repeat the process. The mirror should go around the circle with each person telling something they like about their face.

If a student receives the mirror and says they can't find anything they like, or if they say only negative things, the leader can ask if anyone else in the group can see something in that person's face that they like. After two or three have responded, the individual will be asked to look again. The leader will gently encourage them to say something, but accept it if they can't find anything at that time.

After all the group members have had their turns, the leader will ask if anyone can see something they like in the face of another person. (This is a kind of physical strength bombardment.) Allow the strokes to include personality traits or other body parts. It is important that every person get at least one other person to say something nice about them before leaving the group.

Source

Poem from J. Canfield and H. Wells, 100 Ways to Enhance Self Concept in the Classroom, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1976, p. 156.
Mirror Activity from Larry Chase, The Other Side of the Report Card, Goodyear Publishing, Santa Monica, CA, 1975, p. 127-128.

SESSION 7
BEING SUCCESSFUL

Objectives

1. To help the students realize they have had many success experiences in their lives.
2. To enhance the feeling that they can be successful.

Activity

Success is built on feeling successful. The leader will ask the students to draw a time line, marking off one space for each year. Beginning with their birth year, they will think of their life in terms of successful experiences. They will mark along the lines at the approximate places where they had successful experiences. The students will write a few words which represent the event so they may share later with group members. The leader may want to give examples of what success experiences are (walking, learning to talk, hitting a home run, learning to sew, memorizing a poem). Actually, anything a person thinks is a success is a success - it varies with the individual. We take many of our accomplishments for granted. Again, the leader may want to model the behavior by sharing success experiences which were important to them but might be small things to others. Group members are encouraged to think of future success experiences that they hope to accomplish and include these on their time line.

The members will meet in the circle form for sharing their time lines. The leader will facilitate sharing by encouraging the students to ask questions of the sharing person, e.g.,

1. What were your most successful experiences?
2. What were your feelings when . . . ?
3. What would be the most successful experience for you to accomplish in the future?
4. What do you feel you will have to do to accomplish this?

The leader will ask the members to think of what skills they might have used during the success experience or was the experience a learning experience?

Source

Time line, from L. Chase, The Other Side of the Report Card, Goodyear Publishing, Santa Monica, CA, 1975, p. 106.

SESSION 8
STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES

Objectives

1. To aid the students in their awarenesses of their strengths and weaknesses and in the realization that everyone has some areas in which they do not do so well.
2. To encourage the students to think of and plan ways they could do those things they would like to learn to do or do better.

Activity

Statements number 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 of the "Who Am I?" worksheet are used for this exercise. Each student will compile three lists:

1. Things I can do well
Things I am most proud of
2. Things I cannot do well
3. Things I cannot do well but would like to learn to do better
Things I would like to learn to do

The group members are given 10 - 15 minutes to complete the three lists. They are reminded to include hobbies, school subjects, recreational interests, chores or jobs they have or have had. These lists are brought to the circle and shared.

Each person will be given a turn to share their "I can" list first. A review by the group members will assure each person that they were listened to. This will help to reemphasize their strengths.

Sharing the second list will help the group members deal with problem area and help them in their realization that everyone has difficulties in some area. Sharing the third list will stimulate realistic thinking and planning of ways of improving or learning to do something new.

Source

Activity was adapted from suggestions given in L. Fearn and R. McCabe, Magic Circle Supplementary Idea Guide, The Human Development Training Institute, San Diego, CA, 1975, p. 6.

SESSIONS 9 AND 10
PROBLEM SOLVING

Objectives

1. To give students a method by which they can tackle problems and decision making;
2. To help students become aware of how their personal values, attitudes and previous learning plays a part in their interpretation of a problem and the decisions they make;
3. To help the students become aware that there are problems in which the answer is out of their hands; they were not the cause of the problem; they cannot always solve the problems.

Session 9

Special Materials Needed

Newspaper or magazine pictures, problems from Ann Landers or Dear Abby columns, ten 3 x 5 index cards.

Activity A

The leader will show the group a picture from a magazine or newspaper and ask the members to silently study the picture for several minutes to determine what they feel is happening in the picture. The leader will not begin discussion until at least half of the class has acknowledged that they have an idea as to what is happening in the picture. Each person is given an opportunity to tell what he or she feels is happening. The leader will probably have to record the individual responses so they can bring out the similarities and differences in the interpretations during the discussion which will follow.

As in all interpretations, each person brings their own personal values, attitudes and knowledge into the interpretations. As the leader and the group members compare the various responses, the leader will facilitate the process by pointing out how each person's values, attitudes and learning enter into their personal interpretations. The leader should check to see that everyone in the group can define a value (things we think are very important) and define an attitude (our tendency to think of things as either positive or negative). They will also point out that in most cases, when we are trying to make decisions and solve problems, we need as much information as possible before we can come to the best decision or solution.

Activity B

The leader will introduce the inquiry process which can be used in problem solving and decision making. They will list the steps on the board or have visual aids which will help in teaching the inquiry process.

1. Defining a problem. (What exactly is the problem which needs solving or the decision that needs making?)
2. Developing tentative answers (Naming and listing possible answers, solutions, choices and alternatives).
3. Testing the tentative (possible) answers or solutions. This consists of gathering more information. (If this is the answer then I should find . . . or If I choose this what will happen?)
4. Coming to a conclusion - choosing the best solution or decision.
5. Reevaluating the answer or decision. Does my answer, solution, decision still hold up against time or more information

The leader will illustrate the problem solving process by carrying several problems through the five steps. Appropriate problems can be

found in Ann Landers or Dear Abby columns. The leader can invent several problems. Examples: Joe's parents have decided to get a divorce. He is very unhappy and feels he should find some way to bring his parents back together again. This can illustrate a problem which a person is trying to solve but cannot. Joe was not the cause of the problem and he has no way of solving the problem himself.

Activity C

The leader will give everyone in the group a 3 x 5 index card and tell them to invent a typical problem someone their age might have. (They do not sign their card.) The cards will be collected for the next session.)

Session 10

Activity D

This session will be used by the group to gain practice in problem solving and decision making. The problem is read aloud from the 3 x 5 index card and the group goes through the problem solving process to find the best decision or to determine they cannot solve the problem. That is an acceptable answer. The leader will bring possibilities and information to the process which the students may have missed, but will keep their opinion out of the discussion. If time permits, further group work can be fostered by the following topics:

1. When I tried to solve a problem I could not solve.
2. When I got to share in making a decision.
3. When I did not get to share in making a decision.

Source

Steps in the Inquiry Process, B. Beyer, Inquiry in the Social Studies Classroom. C.E. Merrill Publishing Company, Columbus, OH, 1971. Activity using the 3 x 5 cards from L. Chase, The Other Side of the Report Card. Goodyear Publishing, Santa Monica, CA, 1975, p. 106.

SESSIONS 11 AND 12
PREPARING FOR THE FUTURE

Objectives

1. To prepare the pre-adolescent for the experience of becoming a teenager;
2. To help the student understand that the demand, tensions and misconceptions that can take place during this period are universal (everybody has similar feelings) and temporal (these feelings do pass).

Session 11

Activity A

All students are encouraged to keep a written account of discussions and predictions that are a part of these sessions in their personal journal. These may be retrieved when the teen years actually arrive. (This is an important subject to be included in a program centered around self-esteem because one's self-worth is very vulnerable during the teen years.) While discussions center on the problems encountered during the teen years and the various coping mechanisms used by teenagers to defend their self-concept, the younger students are made aware of the defense mechanisms that not only teenagers use to defend their feelings of self-worth, but anyone uses to cope against feelings of inferiority. The students may recognize defense mechanisms that they are using now.

The leaders will explain that for the next two sessions the group will be involved in learning about an exciting and important period which will take place in their lives in two or three years - becoming a

teenager. They will explain that discussing the changes that occur during this period now - before it happens, might help the person cope with new feelings and changes when they occur. (Giving the pre-adolescent an opportunity to discuss the coming teen years could enhance their feelings of importance now.)

The following topics will help the group members get started and bring out what perceptions the group has on what it means to be a teenager.

1. What it must be like to be a teenager.
2. I look forward to being a teenager because . . .
3. How will my life be different when I become a teenager?
4. I dread becoming a teenager because . . .

The coming teen years are viewed by most pre-adolescents as a time of excitement and increased independence - being more adult. It is not the purpose of this course to make the pre-adolescent dread the teen years, but to give them a realistic view of some of the changes with which they must cope. It is important to bring out the positive side of becoming a teenager first. Topics 1 and 2 will stimulate discussion around many of the positive features of becoming a teenager; a time of football games, dances, driving, high school, make-up, daring, increased independence, etc. The leaders will explain that the teen years are also a time when all the changes which take place can leave the teen feeling confused, uncertain and full of self-doubt.

The leader will bring out the following points: First the teen years are first an age of physical changes. The leader will ask group members to help list some of the physical changes which occur during the teen years. (They will want to signify with an "F" for female and an "M" for

make any changes that do not apply equally to both sexes.) The leader will bring out during the discussion that there are so many physical changes taking place at this time it seems as though a person's body is going completely haywire (voice changes, aches in arms and legs, menstruation, low energy, pimple), but these changes are all natural - everyone has them and they do go away. They will also want to bring out the fact that most teenagers worry about being flat-chested, too short, skinny, fat, etc., but that practice in remembering one's positive features and capabilities will keep the individual from concentrating completely on any negative features. This could be illustrated through role playing. The leaders can play the part of the negative side of a teenager with such remarks as "Look at these pimples and these skinny legs." Group members will come back with positive remarks, "But I do have nice eyes and I like the color of my hair."

Second, the leaders will also bring out that peer pressure (the need to feel you are just like everybody else) can be so great that some teenagers do things they wouldn't otherwise do simply to be in the group and because they allowed their friends to pressure them into it. The leaders can have the group work out a decision or solution to a hypothetical problem dealing with such a situation. This will also give the students a chance to use the problem solving techniques learned in an earlier session. The following is an example of a hypothetical situation dealing with peer pressure:

Barbara does not drink alcohol, in fact she cannot stand the taste of the stuff. One evening she and a group of her friends went to a party after a football game. One of the members had a bottle of alcohol and they were urging Barbara to drink saying it would make her happier and

feel better. They wanted her to join in. The group will help Barbara make a decision using the problem solving/decision making process covered in Sessions 9 and 10.

Thirdly, the teen years are an age of searching for the answers to the questions of "WHO AM I?" and "What do I believe in?" The leaders will remind the group that they already have a jump on this need since they have been involved in a project which centers around helping the person find who they are.

Fourth, the teen years are an age of changing feelings, emotions and personality changes. The leaders will explain to the group that daydreaming, being overly excited, crying for no reason, feeling low one minute and happy another are part of being a teen as much as the physical changes. The leader will emphasize that these feelings of confusion, physical changes, peer pressure (wanting to be like everybody else), feelings of self-doubt are feelings that most teenagers have and they do not last. The leader will list the above predictions on the board, together with the most important fact, that these are NORMAL feelings, THAT MOST TEENAGERS HAVE THEM AND THEY WILL NOT LAST FOREVER. The group is given time to record what they have learned about the teen years during this session in their journals. These will be shared in the circle during the next session.

SESSION 12

Activity B

The group will meet in the circle to discuss and share what they have learned about becoming a teenager. After everyone has been given a chance to share their thoughts and feelings, the leader will turn the discussion

to ways people, teens included, behave or try to cope with feelings of inferiority - negative feelings about one's self.

The leader will explain how people who are feeling negative about themselves may behave. They may Withdraw - to be silent - almost like they are in a shell - they are afraid to say anything or do anything for fear they will be wrong. The leader will ask if anyone has ever felt that way - most people have at one time or another. This is a feeling that almost everyone has experienced in the classroom. People feeling badly about themselves may feel very Angry - they have an attitude "I'll fight everybody" - always angry - with a chip on their shoulders. Role play could be used to demonstrate this inner conflict with one of the group members playing the outer angry part and the leader playing the inner person who is full of self-doubt, unloved and insecure. The leader can explain that some people try to make up for feeling insecure by playing the Clown all the time. They tell themselves "I'll disguise myself and get attention that way." The leader will give the group members an opportunity to think of other ways that people behave when they are not feeling good about themselves. The leader will bring up another way of coping with these feelings which is in the form of compensation. The attitude, "O.K., I may not be good at everything but I am good at some things and I will use the things I am good in."

To illustrate they can tell the story of Babe Ruth - one of the greatest baseball players who has ever lived. Babe Ruth wanted to become a pitcher. He dreamed of becoming the best baseball pitcher in the world. But try as he could he was not good enough to make the league. But he was a good hitter - his record of over 700 homeruns stood for several

years. Yet even with a 700+ homerun record, Babe Ruth struck out over 1300 times. Would Babe Ruth have ever made the record 700+ home runs had he concentrated on what a poor pitcher he was or on how many times he struck out? There are many examples the leaders can use to illustrate how some persons have compensated for their limitations by using their individual strengths. From historical figures like Schweitzer, Beethoven and Helen Keller to modern celebrities like Ray Charles and Stevie Wonder there are many examples. Group members may also be able to give examples of how some individuals used their strengths to offset their limitations.

Source

J. Dobson, Hide or Seek. Fleming H. Revell Co., Old Tappan, NJ, 1974.

SESSIONS 13 AND 14
BEING UNIQUE

Objectives

1. To help the students focus on their strengths and increase their awareness of their unique set of skills and abilities;
2. To encourage the students to feel their uniqueness worthy enough to not only acknowledge to others but to sell to others as well.

Special Materials Needed

Poster paper, crayons, magic markers, magazines, newspaper, glue, tape recorder, blank tapes and scissors.

SESSION 13

Activity

The leaders will explain that every student will have the opportunity to spend the next two sessions planning and carrying out a special individualized advertising campaign in which the valued product is the students' own unique set of skills and abilities. The focus is on them and their positive image. The leader will explain to the group that they will find the knowledge that they have gained from the past activities useful in this activity. The "Who Am I" worksheet, the personal journal and activities such as the Paper Bag and Time Line all focused on finding each person's own unique strengths - the things they liked to do and did well. The leader will suggest that each student begin the activity by making three separate lists of strengths and assets. The first list will include things the student can do well and enjoys doing. This should

include hobbies, best subjects in school (those subjects they find most interesting and do well), organizations to which they belong and enjoy (Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Little League, 4-H, etc.), chores and jobs that they enjoy and do well. The second list will include special personal characteristics such as a good sense of humor, good listener, friendly, happy, trusting, etc. The third list will include physical assets - nice hair, teeth, strong hands, good voice, etc.

A check mark is placed by the very important strengths and characteristics - the ones they feel strongest in and are most proud of. The total group is broke into smaller groups. The members will be given 20-25 minutes to complete their lists. The leaders whould move about the room and if they see a member who cannot think of much that is positive, they will ask if someone in the group would point out some special features (capabilities) the individual has.

When the students are ready, they can start planning their advertising campaigns. They can design a magazine or newspaper advertisement, T.V. or radio commercial, a billboard, a brochure, any kind of advertising campaign they would like to use which best advertises the special product - the individual. The students will spend the remainder of the class period designing their campaigns. Students may work in their small groups and help each other with their campaigns. For example, if one student is a good artist, they might help someone with the drawings on their campaign. If someone is particularly good with writing slogans, they might help others think of just the right words.

The group will continue designing their advertising campaigns during the next session (14). Those who finish early may offer to help others. Students can start to present their campaigns when all are finished.

SESSION 15
THIS IS ME

Activity

Group members will spend this session presenting their individual advertising campaigns. A time limit of five minutes will be set for each campaign. A portion of the last session may be reserved for catching up on this activity.

Source

J. Canfield and H. Wells, 100 Ways to Enhance Self Concept in the Classroom, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1976, p. 109.

SESSION 16
CLOSURE

Objectives

1. To give the student an opportunity to reflect on what they learned from this course - how it may have changed some feelings they had about themselves and others;
2. To give the students an opportunity to suggest changes and additions to the course.

Special Materials Needed

Large 3½" diameter laminated IALAC tags for each group member.

Activity

The leader will give extra time for the group members to review their journals and make any additions.

The last portion of the session will be used in the circle. Suggestions for the final circle are:

1. Something or some way I used to feel and no longer feel.
2. One way this course has changed the way I feel about myself.
3. One way this course has changed the way I feel about others.
4. The most important thing I have learned from this course.
5. Things I wished we had discussed in this class, but did not.
6. How I am going to share what I learned.

The leader will have the special laminated IALAC tags for the members. This will signify that their feelings of self-worth are strong and resistant to tearing - the purpose of this course.

APPENDIX B CHARACTERISTICS OF THE DISRUPTIVE STUDENT

Every classroom has students who are disruptive to the learning process. While there are many characteristics that identify these students, for the purpose of this project, the following criteria will be used:

1. The student is engaged in behavior(s) that require teacher intervention and control.
2. The student is overdependent on the teacher.
3. The student has difficulty concentrating and paying attention.
4. The student consistently enters the classroom unprepared for the day (i.e., homework not done, no pencil, no paper, etc.).
5. The student becomes upset under the pressure of academic achievement more often than classmates.
6. The student does sloppy work and responds impulsively.
7. The student frequently becomes involved in teasing, annoying or interfering with the work of other students.

Again, it should be understood that these criteria for identifying disruptive students are by no means conclusive of any dysfunction or exceptionality. They are used primarily for identifying students for the BUILD program.

APPENDIX C
CREAMER'S LEARNING BEHAVIOR RATING SCALE

Creamer's Learning Behavior Rating Scale

Administration Booklet

by D. Andrew Creamer

Name _____ Date _____

School _____ Age _____ Grade _____

Teacher _____

Please rate each and every item by putting the number of the most appropriate descriptive statement in the box opposite each item. The 5 descriptive statements are given below.

Number 1. You have not noticed the behavior at all.

Number 2. You have noticed the behavior to a slight degree.

Number 3. You have noticed the behavior to a considerable degree.

Number 4. You have noticed the behavior to a large degree.

Number 5. You have noticed the behavior to a very large degree.

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| 1. Becomes angry quickly | ☐ |
| 2. Is stubborn and uncooperative | ☐ |
| 3. Homework is incomplete or not done | ☐ |
| 4. Is impulsive | ☐ |
| 5. Shows little respect for authority | ☐ |
| 6. Follows academic directions poorly | ☐ |
| 7. Takes things belonging to others | ☐ |
| 8. Appears tense | ☐ |
| 9. Daydreams | ☐ |
| 10. Tells falsehoods | ☐ |
| 11. Displays a don't care attitude | ☐ |
| 12. Is dependent on others for direction | ☐ |
| 13. Hits or pushes other | ☐ |
| 14. Appears satisfied with inferior performance | ☐ |
| 15. Wants to boss others | ☐ |
| 16. Teases others | ☐ |

17. Acts silly ☐
18. Shows little self-confidence ☐
19. Appears disinterested in classwork of others ☐
20. Seeks constant praise ☐
21. Plays the clown of the class ☐
22. Is rebellious if disciplined ☐
23. Becomes angry if asked to do something ☐
24. Is quickly frustrated and loses emotional control ☐
25. Drawings and paintings are messy ☐
26. Does things own way ☐
27. Explodes under stress ☐
28. Does not ask questions ☐
29. Gives inappropriate responses ☐
30. Has trouble remembering things ☐
31. Upset if makes a mistake ☐
32. Questions indicate a worry about the future ☐
33. Is easily distracted, short attention span ☐
34. Accuses others of things they actually did not do ☐
35. Complains is not liked by others ☐
36. Difficulty in finishing tasks ☐
37. Will not take suggestions from others ☐
38. Has difficulty shifting responses / tasks ☐
39. Does not show imagination or creativity ☐
40. Rejects classmates in hostile manner ☐

APPENDIX D
WHO AM I? WORK SHEET

WHO AM I?

1) Five adjectives that describe me

3) Things I like about myself

5) Things I am most proud of

7) Things I cannot do well but would like to learn to do well

9) I feel happy when

11) I get angry when

13) What I would like to do in the next year

2) My favorite :

food _____
hobby _____
place _____
person _____
song _____
subject in school _____

4) Things I can do well

6) Things I cannot do well

8) Things I wish I could do

10) A time when I felt sad

12) Two things I believe in

14) The best thing that could happen to me

Adapted from: Magic Circle - The Human Development Program; The Other Side of the Report Card, 100 Ways to Enhance Self Concept in the Classroom.

APPENDIX E

HELPFUL HINTS FOR CREATING A WARM AND ACCEPTING CLASSROOM CLIMATE

HELPFUL HINTS FOR CREATING A WARM AND ACCEPTING CLASSROOM CLIMATE

Try to greet each child as they come in. Smile.

Be a toucher.

When conducting the training course avoid standing and talking down to the children. Sit among the students whenever possible.

Listen, Listen, Listen-- be sure each child knows that they have been listened to before leaving the classroom.

Give each child at least one positive stroke daily.

Be Alert. Watch and acknowledge color changes on journal covers. Watch if the colors do not change.

Gently remind members if they make a "put down" remark, ridicule or laugh at another group member that they might have torn a piece of that person's IALAC tag.

Always announce the next meeting day and the activity or topic which is planned for the day.

The leader should always set aside 5 - 10 minutes each period for the group members to write in their personal journals.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

David Andrew Creamer is a seventh generation Floridian. Although his travels have taken him around the world, he and his wife and two daughters (Shannon and Kelly) currently live in Florida.

Andy started his studies with a B.S. in criminal justice from the University of Central Florida. After graduating, he spent two years in Germany. Upon his return, he completed an M.Ed. in educational psychology at Wayne State University in Detroit, Michigan.

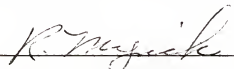
Returning to Florida, Andy ran a vocational-rehabilitation program for retarded adults. From there he went to Director of Counseling and Educational Coordinator of a substance abuse program. During this time he started private practice as a child and family therapist and returned to school.

Along the way, he left the substance abuse program and went to work for the University of Central Florida where he completed an M.A. in guidance in 1980. He completed his doctorate in counselor education at the University of Florida in 1982.

Andy is currently with the University of Central Florida and in private practice as a child and family therapist at the Center for Human Awareness in Winter Park, Florida. *

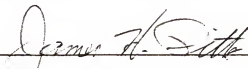
Andy is a member of the Florida Personnel and Guidance Association and the American Personnel and Guidance Association and their respective affiliates.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.



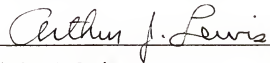
Robert D. Myrick, Chairman
Professor of Counselor Education

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James H. Pitts
Assistant Professor of Counselor Education

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Arthur J. Lewis
Professor of Instructional Leadership
and Support

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Department of Counselor Education in the College of Education and to the Graduate Council, and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education.

August, 1982

Dean for Graduate Studies and Research